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ON BECOMING A TEACHER:
THE STUDENT TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE

by

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "ON BECOMING A TEACHER: THE STUDENT TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE" submitted by Claudette Tardif in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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DEDICATION

To my mother and father who have always believed in me and who have given so generously of their love and support.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe and interpret the process of becoming a teacher from the vantage point of student teachers. Four student teachers became key informants over a period of 18 months.

The study was based on the theory of symbolic interaction in the tradition of Becker et al. (1961) and Blumer (1967). Six exploratory questions guided the study: 1) What meanings and assumptions regarding the nature of teaching and learning does the student teacher have? 2) What are the sources of the meanings he/she holds? 3) What aspects of the practicum experience take on meaning for the student teacher? 4) Is the meaning transformed as the student teacher progressively moves through the various phases of the practicum? 5) How is the meaning handled and modified by the student teacher in dealing with the persons he/she encounters (teachers, students, university instructors)? 6) Is the meaning transferred into practice?

The search for meaning from the perspective of those who were living the student teaching experience necessitated a qualitative, naturalistic approach to the research process. The "grounded theory" approach of Glaser and Strauss (1967) was used for the collecting, coding and analysis of the data. Data was gathered through field research methods (classroom observation, informant interviewing, document analysis, stimulated recall interview sessions and video-recording).

The researcher has endeavored to present a picture of the practicum as experienced by student teachers. The participants' views and definitions of the various practicum phases, the concerns of the participants as they experienced student teaching and the constituent rules of the practicum as learned by the participants are presented. Although each student teacher experienced the practicum in a unique way, a set of prevailing perspectives common to all four participants emerged in response to the situational pressures of the practicum. Perspectives developed and modified through the practicum related to the development of "self as teacher" and to the patterned way of thinking and acting that characterized the conduct of the participants in the adoption of classroom teacher behavior: "taking the class through the lesson," "finding a happy medium," "taking the path of least resistance," "securing control" and "justifying behavior."

The study concludes with the researcher's reflections on the research process followed in the study, on the teaching-learning process as viewed by the participants, on the teacher education program (in particular the practicum) and on the researcher's role as a teacher educator.

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CHAPTER I

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The preparation of teachers has been the subject of considerable investigation over the years. Research in the realm of teacher education has generally concentrated on three areas: (1) the processes of occupational socialization (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981) as they exist in the schools; (2) the kinds of courses, programs and learning opportunities to offer prospective teachers in a teacher education program (Joyce and Weil, 1980); and (3) the outcome of student teaching -- the effect of cooperating teachers on student teacher attitudes and behaviors (Karmos and Jacko, 1977; Richards and Robinson, 1961; Sesperson and Joyce, 1973; Yee, 1968), student teacher characteristics and performance in identified areas and student teacher effectiveness in a classroom setting. The research focus in each of these three areas has been on the product and not on the process. Little is known about the changes which occur in the definition of a teacher in process as he/she moves through the teacher education program.

Student teaching has been viewed as the most influential formative unifying experience in a teacher education program. No one, however, is exactly sure what happens in this aspect of the teacher preparation program.

> Few would challenge or question the need for a period in the preparation of teachers designed to relate theory to practice in a natural setting. However, the design, goals and objectives of the student teaching semester are often vague. Outcomes are usually measured by judging externals and little attention is paid to the stages of the developmental path leading to the completion of the experience (Bernstein, 1978:6).

This study investigates the process of becoming a teacher from the vantage point of the prospective teacher going through the practicum experience. The interpretation of the world of the student teacher is a relatively new area of study in the field of teacher education.

Need for the Study

In view of the fact that the student teaching experience has long been regarded as the *sine qua non* of preservice teacher education, there is a need to know what happens to a "teacher in training" as he/she moves through the practicum.

> The training of teachers, given the tremendous responsibility placed on them and the complexity of educational settings, ought to be one of the most carefully elaborated of professional education experiences (Salzillo and Van Fleet, 1977:28).

Though there have been some studies conducted on preservice field-based experiences, it is difficult to understand the processes at work. Research in this area is often confusing and contradictory.

> A review of the research leaves one with a great feeling of urgency to expedite the study of student teaching; given its ascribed importance in teacher education, it is alarming to find so little systematic research related to it. Discussion and descriptive reports are plentiful but a comprehensive basic study of the processes involved is lacking. Studies of what really happens to the student teacher are vital (Davies and Amershek, 1969:1,384).

Given the importance of student teaching in preservice teacher education, studies are needed that provide descriptive and interpretive accounts to help us better understand "what is going on out there." Cruickshank (1980) summarizes the majority of the research on field-based experiences in preservice teacher education in the following manner:

> The most commonly utilized approach for investigating the impact of field-based experiences is to measure student teacher attitudes (by survey or questionnaire) before and

> after the experience and to draw conclusions about the impact of the experience from the differences in pre and post-scores. ... Few researchers have actually looked at what takes place during the experience itself: How students are shaped and in turn shape the institutions in which they work. Most studies, by reflecting the narrow assumptions of the empirical -analytic paradigm and by relying almost entirely on the pre and post-administration of paper and pencil instruments for their data, have failed to address many of the most important questions related to field-based experiences (Cruickshank, 1980:46).

Rather than adopting the stance of the outsider looking in, one must explore the life-world of the prospective teacher as experienced in the practicum. Too often, the persons responsible for planning teacher education programs are far removed from the reality experienced by individuals proceeding through the program. If we are to improve the quality of teacher preparation programs, university teacher educators, among others, must learn as much as possible about the attitudes, feelings and responses of student teachers as they proceed through the practicum. They must not only reflect on the school culture but also on their own endeavors at the university. Zeichner and Tabachnick state:

> There is an urgent need for research in teacher education, to turn its attention to closer and more subtle analyses of the impact of university courses, symbols, procedures, and rituals upon the professional perspectives of prospective teachers (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981:10).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to interpret the meaning that student teachers attach to their practicum experiences. Six exploratory questions guided the study:

(1) What meanings and assumptions regarding knowledge, teaching, and education does the student teacher have?

(2) What are the sources of the meanings he holds?

(3) What aspects of the practicum experience take on meaning for the student teacher?

(4) Is the meaning transformed as the student progressively moves through the various phases of the practicum?

(5) How is the meaning handled and modified by the student teacher in dealing with the persons he encounters (teachers, students, university instructors)?

(6) Is the meaning transferred into practice?

These questions were considered "working hypotheses" (Geer, 1964) and thus served not as hypotheses to be tested but as an underlying orientation to the research process.

Significance of the Study

Teacher education is an area of significance both in its theoretical implications and in its practical applications. New demands and expectations concerning the teacher's role have arisen because of our rapidly changing society. Attention to the difficult and complex task of designing and implementing teacher preparation programs is not a new development in the history of education. The issue, however, has become further complicated by the fact that in a pluralistic society such as ours, there are legitimate differences of view about what constitutes the desirable outcomes of the educational process. This difference often leads to an absence of agreement on the objectives of education in general and of teacher education in particular.

The core component of most teacher preparation programs is the student teaching experience. Unfortunately, little is known about what actually occurs in a student teaching experience. A study which focuses on the interpretation of student teaching from the point of view of the student teacher may provide useful information to those involved in teacher education. This area of inquiry is considered to be a potentially good source for enriching the knowledge base of teacher education programs. For many years, teacher educators have tinkered with, modified and repaired the curriculum without fully knowing what does or does not occur during formal training. According to Fuller and Brown:

> The whole area of teacher education should be recognized as a case of the general class of behavior change: an infant substantively... The appropriate question at this state of knowledge is not "are we right" but only "what is out there?" (Fuller and Brown, 1975:52).

It is the hope of the researcher that this study will offer some insights not only into the substantive issues related to preservice teacher education but also be of significance in its methodological aspects. The study considers the passage of time in the definition of a teacher in process. Time was an active force which brought about change in student teacher behavior. The appropriateness of field study methodologies for understanding the complex and interrelated world of teaching is illuminated in this study. By uncovering knowledge about what is learned in becoming a teacher through the student teaching experience, naturalistic, qualitative approaches to research in the study of field-based experiences may offer greater possibilities for understanding the existential reality of being a teacher. As MacGregor and Hawke (1982:44) have stated, the findings of ethnographic inquiry "may shed a different kind of light on the elusive process of education." This research contributes to a need for descriptive data on the student teaching experience.

Theoretical Framework

Given that the purpose of the study is to interpret the meaning that student teachers attach to their practicum experiences, an approach is needed which allows for the interpretation of meaning. The theory of symbolic interaction constitutes a theoretical perspective within social psychology which is based on the process of interpretation. The major views of this theory have been explicated in the writings of George Herbert Mead (the chief architect of symbolic interactionism), Herbert Blumer, Everett Hughes, Howard Becker and Blanche Geer. The fundamental concepts and assumptions of symbolic interaction are presented.

For Blumer, the term "symbolic interaction" refers

> to the peculiar and distinctive character of interaction as it takes place between human beings. The peculiarity consists in the fact that human beings interpret or "define" each other's actions instead of merely reacting to each other's actions. Their "response" is not

> made directly to the actions of one another but instead is based on the meaning which they attach to such actions. Thus, human interaction is mediated by the use of symbols, by interpretation, or by ascertaining the meaning of one another's actions. This mediation is equivalent to inserting a process of interpretation between stimulus and response in the case of human behavior (Blumer, 1967:139).

Basic to the theory of symbolic interaction is the assumption that people give meaning to their experiences through the process of interpretation. Blumer identifies three premises of symbolic interactionism:

> (1) Human beings act toward things on the basis of the meanings that the things have for them.
> (2) The meanings of such things is derived from or arises out of social interaction one has with one's fellows.
> (3) Meanings are handled in and modified through an interpretive process used by the person in dealing with the things he encounters (Blumer, 1969:3).

For the symbolic interactionist, then,

> Human interaction is mediated by the use of symbols, by interpretation, or by ascertaining the meaning of one another's actions (Blumer, 1969:139).

Symbolic interaction with its emphasis on meaningful human processes views human action as volitional. In opposition to the behaviorist view in which man is conceived of as a passive neutral agent shaped by his environment, the theoretical perspective of symbolic interaction views man as an active agent choosing those stimuli or objects to which he shall respond, transforming his social world in the process.

The interpretive act as the basis of Mead's social psychology requires further elaboration. For Mead (1934), human behavior is viewed as social behavior, human acts as social acts. In interacting with each other, acting individuals ascertain the "intention" of the acts of others, and then respond accordingly.

> Human beings ... respond to one another on the basis of the intentions or meanings of gestures. This renders the gestures symbolic , i.e., the gesture becomes a symbol to be interpreted; it becomes something which, in the imaginations of the participants, stands for the entire act (Meltzer, 1967:8).

Man's ability to engage in imaginative activity rests on his capacity to respond in the same way to the same gesture. Mead gives the example of the statement "open the window" in which the speaker must have an image of the listener responding to his words by opening the window, and the listener must have an image of his opening the window. The mental activity of imagining the completion of an act takes place when one takes the position of the other. In the process of "role-taking", "the human being responds to himself as other persons respond to him, and in so doing he imaginatively shares the conduct of others. That is, in imagining their response he shares that response" (Meltzer, 1967:9).

The construct of the "self" is a major premise of Mead's theory. In stating that the human being has a self, Mead refers to man's capacity to become the object of his own actions. Concurrent with the individual's ability to "share" the perspectives of others through the "taking of the roles" of others, the individual's capacity to act toward oneself develops. The self is the major mechanism by which an individual faces and deals with his world (Blumer, 1967). The major implications of Mead's theory of the "self" are as follows:

> (1) The possession of a self makes of the individual a society in miniature. That is, he may engage in interaction with himself just as two or more different individuals might. In the course of this interaction, he can come to view himself in a new way, thereby bringing about changes in himself.
> (2) The ability to act toward oneself makes possible an inner experience which need not reach overt expression. That is, the individual, by virtue of having a self, is thereby endowed with the possibility of having a mental life: He can make indications to himself -- which constitutes mind.
> (3) The individual with a self is thereby enabled to direct and control his behavior. Instead of being subject to all impulses and stimuli directly playing upon him, the individual can check, guide, and organize his behavior. He is, then, not a mere passive agent (Meltzer, 1967:12-13).

The process of "self-indication" is thus the means by which sense is made of social reality and actions are constructed. Blumer describes the process as follows:

> Whatever the action in which he is engaged, the human individual proceeds by pointing out to himself the divergent things which have to be taken into account in the course of his action. He has to note what he wants to do and how he is to do it; he has to take account of the demands, the expectations, the prohibitions, and the threats as they may arise in the situation in which he is acting. His action is built up step by step through a process of self-indication. The individual pieces together and guides his actions by taking account of different things and interpreting their significance for his prospective action (Blumer, 1967:142).

The interactive process of self-indication allow for personal growth and change.

> The self is thus also a social construction, the results of persons perceiving themselves and then developing a definition through the process of interaction. This loop enables people to change and grow as they learn more about themselves through this interactive process (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982:35).

The act of self-indication depends on one's definition of the situation. The term "definition of the situation" was used by Thomas and Znaniecki (1918) in The Polish Peasant in Europe and America to refer to the individual's prior conception of and attitudes toward a given situation that influence his behavior when he meets that situation. Shibutani (1967:161) maintains "that the manner in which one consistently defines a succession of situations depends upon his organized perspective." A perspective is defined as

> an ordered view of one's world - what is taken for granted about the attributes of various objects, events, and human nature. It is an order of things remembered and expected as well as things actually perceived, an organized conception of what is plausible and what is possible; it constitutes the matrix through which one perceives his environment. The fact that men have such ordered perspectives enables them to conceive of their ever changing world as relatively stable, orderly, and predictable. As Riezler put it, one's perspective is an outline scheme which, running ahead of experience, defines and guides it (Shibutani, 1967:161-162).

Becker, Geer and Hughes divide perspectives into three categories:

(1) Perspectives contain a set of ideas describing the character of the situation in which action must be taken. These ideas are definitions of the situation.
(2) Perspectives contain actions or activities which one may engage in given the world as it is defined by the person.
(3) Perspectives contain criteria of judgment (Becker, Geer and Hughes, 1968:29-30).

For Janesick (1977), the sum of an individual's interaction over time constitutes a perspective. "A perspective is a combination of beliefs and behaviors which characterize an individual's definition of a social world" (Janesick, 1977:43).

In terms of symbolic interaction theory, student teachers will interpret the practicum situation within which they are placed through the process of self-indication. An individual "notes things, assesses them, gives them a meaning, and then acts on the basis of the meaning" (Blumer, 1967) in terms of how they define the situation. Student teachers engaged in the establishment of self as teacher will interpret the practicum experience by noting the social demands made on them and by aligning their actions to the actions of others by ascertaining the meaning of the other's acts. This procedure entails taking on the role of the other in the process of self-indication. Under the perspective of symbolic interaction, individuals fit their respective lines of action to one another through a process of interpretation. Blumer (1967) describes group action as the collective or concerted actions of individuals seeking to meet their life situations. The student teachers in this study sought to define lines of action in what was for them a largely "undefined situation." Interpretations had to be developed. The study attempts to trace and study the emerging process of definition which was brought into play.

Assumptions of the Study

1. That individuals are actively involved in giving meaning to their social world and in reflecting on the objects of their actions.
2. That individuals can provide a description of their beliefs, feelings and actions.
3. That the naturalistic, qualitative mode of inquiry is appropriate for describing and interpreting the experiences of actors in a particular situation.
4. That the student teaching experience is a major step in the process of becoming a teacher.

Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the study. The need for the study, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study along with the theoretical underpinnings of the study are described. Chapter II describes the research approach adopted in this study along with the techniques used to collect and analyze the data. Chapter III presents the setting. An overview of the practicum component of the teacher education program is presented along with a brief description of the life-history of each of the four informants and their beliefs about teaching. Chapter IV describes the practicum as experienced. Each phase of the practicum is described as defined by the informants. Major concerns are identified and an explication of the rules governing the practicum is presented. Chapter V concentrates on the perspectives that emerge during the practicum. Chapter VI presents a summary of the major findings that relate to the exploratory questions identified in the purpose of the study. The final chapter is devoted to reflection, to making explicit what is often implicit.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to describe and interpret the meaning that student teachers attach to their practicum experiences. Four student teachers are key informants in the research process as they progress through phases I, II and III of their practicum experience during the period January 1982 to May 1983. The data needed to realize the purpose of the study were obtained through a combination of field techniques.

In this chapter, the basic tenets of the conceptual framework which led to the choice of the research design will be presented followed by a step by step account of the procedures used in the study.

Choice of a Method

There has been a growing interest in alternative approaches in educational research based on a dissatisfaction with the empiricist paradigm as a means of explaining complex human phenomena. Rapoport and Horvath (1968) speak of the problem of assuming that a complex phenomenon can be understood by treating it as if it can be "broken up into a temporal chain of events, all connected by determinate causal relations." Research which seeks to interpret personal meaning attached to a particular lived reality cannot derive from a rigorous model of hypothesis testing and objective data collecting that is consistent with research in the experimental mode. Battersby (1981:92) claims that the information obtained from "hard-data" collection or "quantitative methods" is unsatisfactory in tapping the dynamics and complexities of the processes involved in becoming a teacher.

Researchers are turning toward qualitative methods to gather information about human behavior that is inaccessible to the more quantitative methods. Qualitative research is "predicated upon the assumption that an 'inner understanding' enables the comprehension of human behavior in greater depth than is possible from the study of surface behavior, from paper and pencil tests and from standardized interviews" (Rist, 1979:20). Wilson (1977) maintains that the rationale underlying the more qualitative methods is based on two sets of hypotheses about human behavior: a) the naturalistic-ecological hypothesis, and b) the qualitative-phenomenological hypothesis. The first hypothesis exhorts researchers to study behavior in its natural context. The second hypothesis exhorts the researcher to understand the framework within which the subjects themselves interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions.

Given the basic tenets of symbolic interaction and the intention of this study, the researcher sought a research design which would allow for an internal view of student teaching. The theory of symbolic interaction makes certain claims about the nature of human behavior and the best way of coming to understand it. The methodological implications of symbolic interaction require that the "student of human society" catch the process of interpretation by immersing oneself in the social situation under study. Blumer explains:

> The study of action would have to be made from the position of the actor. One would have to see the operating situation as the actor sees it. You have to define and interpret the objects as the actor interprets them (Blumer, 1966:542).

The research paradigm used to arrive at this inner understanding is based on field methods. The choice of field study techniques for this research was considered appropriate. According to Kerlinger's (1973:407) definition, field study "is exploratory in nature, since it seeks what is rather than predicts relationships to be found." He further comments: "the realism of field studies is obvious. Of all types of studies, they are the closest to real life."

Field techniques that are part of the ethnographic method have long been considered basic to research in anthropology. In recent years, ethnography has developed as a method of study most suitable to interpretive research in education. The researcher takes the role of participant observer. Geer describes this approach in the following manner:

> A participant observer in the field is at once reporter, interviewer and scientist. On the scene, he gets the story of an event by questioning participants about what is happening and why. He fills out the story by asking people about their relation to the event, their reactions, opinions, and its significance. As an interviewer, he encourages the informant to tell his story ... As scientist, he seeks answers to questions, setting up hypotheses and collecting the data with which to test them (Geer, 1964:331).

Geertz (1975:6) defines ethnography as primarily "an elaborate venture in thick description." Thick description constitutes an extensive description and interpretive effort at explaining the complexity of social discourse. An ethnographer strives to understand the meaning actors give to their behaviors and actions. He endeavors to interpret the meaning of the event for those involved. Wilson supports this view.

> Ethnographers assume that individuals have meaning structures that determine much of their behavior... (and) that they seek to discover what these meaning structures are, how they develop, and how they influence behavior, in as comprehensive and objective a fashion as possible (Wilson, 1977:254).

The use of ethnographic techniques in the field of educational research is growing. Several school studies have been completed using ethnographic techniques: Cusick (1973) on student life in a high school; Duignan (1981) on the administrative behavior of superintendents; Jackson (1968) on life in elementary classrooms; Janesick (1977) on a teacher's classroom perspective; Hawke (1980) on the life-world of a beginning teacher of art; Smith and Geoffrey (1968) on the complexities of an urban classroom; Wolcott (1973) on the day to day realities of a school principal. Researchers involved in the evaluation of educational programs are finding this approach useful: Koppelman (1979) on the use of an anthropological approach in program evaluation; Parlett and Hamilton (1972) on illuminative evaluation as an approach to the study of innovatory programs. Field study methodologies have also been used by a small group of researchers interested in the development of teaching perspectives during field-based experiences (Battersby, 1981; Bernstein, 1978; Gibson, 1976; Iannacone, 1963; Tabachnick, 1980; Tabachnick et al, 1980).

The studies mentioned above were similar in that they used naturalistic, qualitative approaches to research. Bogdan and Biklen present five characteristics of qualitative research:

> (1) Qualitative research has the natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument.
> (2) Qualitative research is descriptive.
> (3) Qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply with outcomes or products. How do people negotiate meaning? How do certain terms come to be applied?
> (4) Qualitative researchers tend to analyze their data inductively.
> (5) Meaning is of essential concern to the qualitative approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982:27-28).

The research processes used in the studies cited above served as models for this study of the practicum experience as viewed by student teachers. This researcher placed herself in the student teacher's setting over time and attempted to describe and explain the subjects' world as they would so describe it. Concern for describing the process of interpretation used by the subjects required that the researcher walk in their shoes recognizing nevertheless that she must not lose perspective of the research situation. Data were collected as close to actuality as possible within the limits of research using human participants. Considering that this type of study is descriptive and exploratory in nature, the researcher avoided prestructuring the inquiry. Emphasis was on the generation of hypotheses from the data rather than the verification of a priori hypotheses. The researcher developed explanations from the descriptive data obtained from the informants and from observation in the field. A recurrent objection to the qualitative, naturalistic approach to research in education relates to questions of reliability and validity. A discussion of these issues follows.

Validity and Reliability

Problems of reliability and validity face all those who engage in scientific inquiry. Judging the "trustworthiness" (Guba, 1980) of inquiries conducted in the naturalistic mode has posed particular problems for those accustomed to inquiry in the positivistic vein. The naturalistic, qualitative inquiry paradigm results in variations in the ways problems of reliability and validity are approached in ethnographic and experimental research. LeCompte and Goetz summarize the situation in this way:

> Ethnographic research differs from positivistic research, and its contributions to scientific progress lie in such differences. These may involve the data gathering that necessarily precedes hypothesis formulation and revision or may focus on descriptive investigation and analysis. By admitting into the research frame the subjective experiences of both participants and investigator, ethnography may provide a depth of understanding lacking in other approaches to investigation. Ignoring threats to credibility weakens the result of such research, whatever its purpose may be. However, addressing threats to credibility in ethnography requires different techniques from those used in experimental studies (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982:32).

Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which studies can be replicated. Addressing the issue of reliability in the naturalistic paradigm is quite different than in the positivistic paradigm. Though replicability may be a relatively easy task to accomplish in a laboratory setting where standardized instruments and procedures are used, it may be difficult to achieve in a natural setting which relies on participant observation as a primary means of collecting data. According to LeCompte and Goetz (1982), replicability is impossible to achieve unless the researcher provides a precise identification and a thorough description of the social role held by the researcher within the studied group, of the informants and the decision process invoked in their choice, of the social context within which data were gathered, of the theoretical premises and constructs underlying the research and of the strategies used to collect and analyze the data. Guba (1980) refers to this process as establishing an "audit trail" that will make it possible for an external auditor to examine the processes used during the study and at the completion of the study.

Reliability is also concerned with the extent to which there is interobserver agreement on the sets of meanings used to describe the phenomena under study. There are many strategies a researcher can use to reduce the threat of problems of internal reliability. Researchers are encouraged to include in their reports a lot of primary data in order to substantiate their inferred categories of analysis. The credibility of ethnographic research depends to a large extent on providing the reader with multiple examples from the field notes. LeCompte and Goetz make the following statement:

> Low-inference descriptors, phrased in terms as concrete and precise as possible, are mandated for all ethnographic research. These include verbatim accounts of what people say as well as narratives of behavior and activity (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982:41).

Researchers may also guard against threats to internal relibility by utilizing multiple researchers, enlisting the aid of local informants, peer examination, and the use of mechanically recorded data so as to preserve the raw data for further investigation and confirmation.

Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which propositions generated, refined or tested accurately portray what is happening in a particular setting. Ethnographic research purports to have high internal validity:

> The claim of ethnography to high internal validity derives from the data collection and analysis techniques used by ethnographers .... First, the ethnographer's common practice of living among participants and collecting data for long periods provides opportunities for continual data analysis and comparison to refine constructs and to ensure the match between scientific categories and participant reality. Second, informant interviewing, a major ethnographic data source, necessarily is phrased more closely to the empirical categories of participants and is formed less abstractly than instruments used in other research designs. Third, participant observation, the ethnographer's second key source of data, is conducted in natural settings that reflect the reality of the life experiences of participants more accurately than do contrived settings. Finally, ethnographic analysis incorporates a process of researcher self-monitoring, termed disciplined subjectivity (Erickson, 1973), that exposes all phases of the

> research activity to continual questioning and reevaluation (Lecompte and Goetz, 1982:43).

Bruyn suggests that the validity of the description and explanation provided by the researcher rests in the accurate portrayal of the studied group as they construct their actions in the social settings. He comments: "What the researcher says is reality in the minds of those he studies, must be the reality in the same way that they conceive it" (Bruyn, 1966:255).

Whereas internal validity is concerned with the extent to which research findings correspond to an authentic representation of some reality, external validity is concerned with the extent to which research findings can be generalized. Guba (1980) believes that it is not possible to develop "truth" statements that have general applicability on the grounds that nearly all social/behavioral phenomena are context bound. "Rather, one must be content with statements descriptive or interpretative of a given context--idiographic or context-relevant statements (1980:22)." LeCompte and Goetz speak of "comparability and translatability of findings rather than of outright transference to groups not investigated."

> Comparability requires that the ethnographer delineate the characteristics of the group

> studied or constructs generated so clearly that they can serve as a basis for comparison with other like and unlike groups (Wolcott, 1973). Translatability assumes that research methods, analytic categories, and characteristics of phenomena and groups are identified so explicitly that comparisons can be conducted confidently (Lecompte and Goetz, 1982:34).

The Role of the Researcher

The researcher was quite aware of the critical role she played in the research process. She was sensitive to the need to show empathy toward the participants while at the same time striving to be impartial and non directive. As Kerlinger illustrates, the researcher's ability to become a sensitive research instrument can be a strength and a weakness:

> The observer must digest the information derived from his observations and then make inferences about constructs. ... The strength is that the observer can relate the observed behavior to the constructs or variables of a study: he brings behavior and construct together. ... The basic weakness of the observer is that he can make quite incorrect inferences from observations (Kerlinger, 1973:538).

The role taken by the researcher in the classroom was one of observer. Though the researcher did take part at times in some activities that were part of the student teacher's setting (having lunch in the staffroom, interacting with students), the researcher did not generally participate in the classroom life of the participant. The researcher informed the cooperating teacher, students and other staff members at the school of the general purpose of the study.

The fact that the investigator was very familiar with the teacher education program and in particular with the practicum provided several advantages. The practicum could be interpreted within the context of the whole teacher education program and an understanding of the situation was present that may not have been available to an outsider. Eisner (1977) speaks of the strengths of educational connoisseurship in the evaluation of classroom life. The researcher attempted to balance her "connoisseurship" role with the "learner/observer" role.

Researchers enter a field of study with conceptual baggage. It is a false assumption to believe that no biases exist in positivistic research or in other types of research. In ethnography, where the researcher becomes the instrument, the issue of researcher bias is crucial. The researcher must remember that her presence may be affecting the situation. The ethnographer must tread a thin line between over involvement and complete detachment. Wilson (1977) maintains that a reader needs to know the researcher's original points of view, theoretical orientations and underlying assumptions prior to the collection of data. The researcher's statement of beliefs regarding education in general and more particularly the role of the teacher are provided in Appendix A.

Selection of the Participants

Though the researcher gathered some data from all secondary route Faculté Saint-Jean Bachelor of Education students doing their practicum within the period in question, four student teachers were chosen for more intensive study. Having relatively easy access to the names of students who would be enrolling in the practicum, the researcher sought out individuals with whom she felt at ease, and whom she thought related well to her. Each individual was known to the researcher as a result of her having had them as students in an introductory educational psychology course two years previously. Thus, an important criterion in the selection of the student teachers was the willingness of these individuals to relate to and share their feelings and experiences with the researcher.

A second criterion in the selection of subjects was the desire to choose participants from both sexes. Two females and two males were chosen. A third criterion was the need to choose individuals from different cultural and educational backgrounds. Of the four individuals selected, two were francophones from Quebec, who had arrived in Alberta as university students two years previously. A third individual was a native anglophone Albertan who had studied French in high shool and who had completed a Bachelor of Arts degree with a major in French at an Alberta university before registering in the Bachelor of Education After Degree program at the Faculté. The fourth individual was a young married native francophone Albertan who had completed her elementary and secondary schooling in a francophone milieu.

Gaining Entry and Establishing Rapport

The researcher selected the participants for the study based on her knowledge of them as students in one of her courses. The participants were approached individually at the beginning of the phase I practicum and asked if they would agree to act as participants in a research project which attempted to unravel the meaning of teaching from the student teacher's perspective. The students were informed that their participation would be required over a period of three university semesters (January to April 1982, September to December 1982, January to April 1983) and would consist of being interviewed by the researcher throughout the three phases, submitting class assignments from phases I and II, being observed and video-taped in phase III and recording their thoughts and feelings regarding the student teaching experience in a weekly journal in phase III.

The researcher in this study is a staff member in the teacher education program at Faculté Saint-Jean. One of the responsibilities of the researcher is in the area of the practicum: recruiting cooperating teachers, overseeing the placement process for student teachers, planning and organizing cooperating teacher orientation sessions as well as other related administrative duties. Normally, the researcher is involved as well in some supervision of student teachers. The researcher did not, however, assume this responsibility during the period of the study so as not to be perceived in the role of critic or evaluator. In order for the participants to feel comfortable and non-threatened by the researcher's presence, it was essential for the researcher to gain the confidence and trust of the participants. As Bruyn (1966) puts it "Participants must come to trust and value the observer enough to be willing to share intimate thoughts with him and answer his endless questions."

Though she felt that all four participants related well to her, it was necessary for the researcher to be seen in a new light. Rather than viewing the researcher as one who was an expert on teaching, who could provide answers to the questions asked, it was necessary to establish the role of the researcher as learner. On many occasions, the investigator took the opportunity to express to the participants that she wanted to know what student teaching was like from their point of view and that she really did not know about the world of student teaching as experienced by them. As Spradley (1980:64) would say: "The ethnographer takes every opportunity to express his ignorance ."

The researcher took care in her interviews with the participants not to express approval or disapproval for any particular statement or action. The researcher strove to play the role of an active and impartial observer and listener. As well, confidentiality and anonymity were continually assured by the researcher. There did not seem to be any reluctance on the part of the participants to share their thoughts and feelings with the researcher. In several instances there was an eagerness to talk about classroom events and to share feelings and thoughts. Though some of the early interviews were held in the office of the researcher, subsequent interviews were held in the particular school setting of each student teacher. As well, social gatherings in phase III were held on a bi-monthly basis in an informal setting such as a restaurant or lounge. These social gatherings proved very fruitful in breaking down any predetermined mode of interacting that may have existed between the researcher and the participants. As the research project carried on, the researcher sensed that a trusting, open relationship had developed between herself and each participant.

Process of Data Gathering

A variety of data collection techniques was utilized in the study. It is the belief of the researcher that the use of a combination of data gathering techniques to examine the same dimension of a research problem will lead to a more accurate portrayal of the phenomenon in question. This approach has been described as triangulation:

> Triangulation ... can be something other than scaling, reliability and convergent validation. It can also capture a more complete, holistic, and contextual portrayal of the unit(s) under study. That is, beyond the analysis of overlapping variance, the use of multiple measures may also uncover some unique variance which otherwise may have been neglected by single methods. It is here that qualitative methods, in particular, can play an especially prominent role by eliciting data and suggesting conclusions to which other methods would be blind. Elements of the context are illuminated (Jick, 1979: 603).

Projective Method

A projective method was utilized at the completion of phase II to identify the participants' feelings about the forthcoming phase III experience. The completion technique devised by Bernstein (1978:183) and used in this study provided the participants with a series of stimuli that were incomplete sentences and asked them to record their feelings as they wished. For example, "I am hoping my cooperating teacher will ---." This approach to data collection was used in order to compare the expectations of the participants with their actual experiences in phase III. A copy of the questionnaire is to be found in Appendix B.

Document Study

(a) Class Assignments

Permission was given by the practicum students and by the practicum course instructor for class assignments given in phases I and II to be photocopied and given to the researcher. In keeping with the objectives and course content identified in the phase I practicum course, students were to submit a personal reflective response to each of the three themes identified in the course:

(1) What is education?

(2) What is the role of the school?

(3) What is is like to be an adolescent?

In addition, the observation sheets completed by the students while observing in the classroom were provided to the researcher. In phase II, the four participants provided the researcher with a detailed analysis of and personal reflection on two classroom events which they had observed or experienced while in the school setting.

These documents provided an additional source of data. They served to corroborate information given by the students in the interview sessions. As well, the views and attitudes toward education given by the participants at that point in their evolution as teachers could be compared to later statements make by the participants while in the actual teaching process in phase III. It was interesting to note how the orientation of the professor and the course content of the phase I and II course influenced the statements of the participants throughout that particular period.

(b) Weekly Journal

As an integral part of their student teaching in phase III, the participants were asked to write a weekly summary of their experiences and feelings. Participants were told that the diaries would provide the researcher with information about what student teaching was like from their point of view. In consideration of the pressures felt by student teachers, a daily diary was not requested. An adaptation of a set of open-ended questions devised by Bernstein (1978:185-186) was given to the participants by the researcher (see Appendix C). These questions were in no way prescriptive but rather were meant to serve as possible guides or cues to stimulate the participants to recall events and feelings that had occurred during the week. The participants were told, however, that they could leave the questions aside and simply express themselves as they so desired.

Informant Interviewing

(a) Semi-Structured Interviews

The interview technique was the primary method of obtaining data utilized in this study. The researcher had many occasions to interview the participants over the period of the three semesters. Each of the participants' interviews was recorded on a portable cassette tape recorder. There was no predetermined period of time allocated for each interview session, but on the average the duration of the interview varied from 45 minutes to 75 minutes in length. The tape-recorded material was transcribed to obtain approximately 1000 pages of typewritten interview data. As the research progressed, the nature and format of the interviews changed. A description of the two types of interviews and the manner in which they were carried out follows. A record of classroom visits and interview sessions has been compiled for the reader in App[illegible]ix D.

Semi-structured interviews were held an average of two times with each of the four participants in phase I. An additional six interviews with other students enrolled in the practicum program but not selected for intensive study were also conducted. The first interview with each subject was semi-structured, that is wide-ranging questions concerning the nature of teaching and education in general were directed towards the informants. The nature of the subsequent interviews depended on the information given in previous interviews. The participants were given typewritten copies of previous interviews and asked if they agreed with the statements that had been made. The researcher, having completed a preliminary analysis of the interview, would identify one or two areas which she wished to probe further in order to make a general statement or comment about these areas. The responses made by the student teacher provided the cues for questions by the researcher. No lists of questions were prepared beforehand to be answered in any one interview session. The nature of the study commanded that the interview sessions be flexible, open-ended and nondirective.

The researcher pursued her data gathering utilizing the semi-structured interview format with the four participants in the following year. Interviews were held with each of the participants in the first seven weeks of course instruction of the professional year and in the six weeks of phase II, following classroom observation by the researcher of each participant's student teaching. These interviews continued in phase III with the participants as well as with the cooperating teachers with whom they were placed.

(b) Stimulated Recall Sessions

In addition to semi-structured interviews, the phase III component of the practicum experience involved the use of stimulated recall techniques. Each of the four participants was videotaped on six separate occasions while teaching. The purpose of these interviews was to stimulate recall of student teachers' interactive thought processes. In view of the fact that it is very difficult for a teacher to teach and to reflect on the nature of her teaching simultaneously, the researcher judged that viewing a videotape of one's teaching could serve as a useful point of departure which would trigger the participants to talk about the experience of teaching they had just completed. As well, this procedure allows for the interpretation of the teaching act by the participants themselves. This technique has been used successfully by Cooper (1979), Marland (1977), and Tuckwell (1980).

The following procedures were adopted in conducting the stimulated recall sessions. With agreement between the researcher and the cooperating teacher, the participants were released from the classroom immediately after the videotaping to view the tape with the researcher in a separate location in the school. At the onset of the session, the objectives of the study were reiterated and the rationale for using the videotape recorder was explained. Anonymity was assured and the confidentiality of the session was stressed. The controls to the videotape recorder were placed on a table in front of the researcher and the participant so that either could stop the replay. A cassette audio recorder was placed on the same table to record the session. Participants were asked to view the tape and to think aloud while viewing, recalling thoughts, feelings and reactions that were experienced during the lesson. The researcher attempted to let the participants speak spontaneously. She prompted with open-ended questions only when necessary for further elaboration and clarification. The researcher would at times direct the attention of the informant to a particular event that had occurred in the classroom or ask why the student teacher had acted in such and such a way, how he/she felt, etc.

Informal Group Sessions

As a means of establishing rapport with the participants as well as obtaining additional understandings, the researcher met the four participants as a group in an informal setting on a bi-monthly basis in phase III. At these sessions, the researcher attempted to let the conversation take its natural course and intervened the least possible. The social meetings provided the individuals being studied with the opportunity to share their experiences with their colleagues involved in similar situations. The participants were eager to relate to each other experiences which they had had during the previous two weeks. The researcher did not find it necessary to steer the conversation in the direction of "what it was like to be a student teacher." The conversation would naturally lead to their student teaching experiences.

The researcher found these social gatherings to be a most valuable source of information. Students wanted to talk, to share and to describe their school experiences to each other. Outside the confines of the school setting, and in the presence of their peers, they were willing to drop their cover and to talk freely. Of most interest was what the participants said to each other. This information provided the researcher with a more accurate portrayal of what it was really like to be a student teacher. In fact, at one point one of the participants commented: "You know you are privileged in that we are treating you as one of us and not as a teacher." The researcher was thus privy to information that she may not have been able to gather in other methods of data collection. Getting a goup perspective was a major focus of data gathering for Becker et al. (1961) in their study of student medical culture. Upon returning from these informal group sessions, the researcher would write her recollections of the conversation and her tentative interpretations of some of the underlying meanings in her field journal.

Observation

Observation of the student teacher participants in the classroom setting was a primary data source in this study. The researcher observed each participant once in phase II and on a weekly basis for the nine week period of phase III. This permitted the researcher to experience part of the lived reality of the student teacher. According to suggestions made by Wilson, the researcher attempted to link the information gathered by comparing:

a) What a subject says in response to a question.
b) What he says to other people.
c) What he says in various situations.
d) What he says at various times.
e) What he actually does in the classroom.
f) Various non-verbal signals.
g) What those who are significant to the person feel, say and do (Wilson, 1977:256-257).

Direct observation allowed the establishment of greater trust and confidence toward the researcher on the part of the participants. The researcher was seen as familiar with the situation and therefore was allowed to share in the life world of the student teacher. The participants felt at ease in discussing such occurrences as a discipline problem that the researcher had witnessed, a lesson or concept well taught, student problems.

Although the researcher did play a more active role in some settings (staff lounge), observation in the classroom was generally of the non-participant observation type. The researcher generally occupied a student desk in the back of the classroom taking notes on the "who, what, where and how of an activity" (Duignan, 1981:287). As little interpretation as possible was contained in these observational notes.

Videotaping

For the purpose of the stimulated recall interviews, a total of approximately 30 hours of video was recorded. The following procedures were established with every class taped. Equipment was set up at such a time so as not to disturb the class routine (prior to school opening or at the noon hour). At the outset, the researcher would present a brief description of the research project to each class being taped. Students were told that the researcher was interested in how one became a teacher in order to improve the teacher education program. For this reason, the student teacher along with the class would be filmed. The focus would be on the teacher and not on the students. The technician who had accompanied the researcher would then explain rapidly the functioning of the equipment and allow the students to look through the lenses of the camera. Students were given time to ask questions. The students (especially in junior high) were quite excited about "a story being written about their class." Initial questions dealt with: "Will we be on TV?" "When can we see ourselves?" "Will this be a book?" For this initial contact no actual filming was carried out. The visit served to familiarize the students and the student teacher participants with the presence of the camera equipment and two observers in the class. In some instances, the students were already familiar with the researcher as she had been present for previous classroom observations.

Field Journal

In addition to observational notes, a field journal was kept by the researcher in the most intensive stage of data collection (the nine week phase III portion of the practicum). The field journal essentially served two purposes. On the one hand, it contained reflections and interpretations by the researcher based on the observations and interviews that had constituted part of the day's activity in the field. On the other hand, keeping a field journal served to record the researcher's personal thoughts and feelings, a sort of conversation with self.

The recording of information beyond what is obtained through direct observation and verbatim quotations is recommended by those knowledgeable in field research techniques. Spradley (1980) has distinguished between a condensed account and an expanded account. Schatzman and Strauss (1973) speak of the development of theoretical and methodological notes in addition to observational notes. They suggest that a researcher make "self-conscious, controlled attempts to derive meaning from any one or several observation notes" (1973:95). Schatzman and Strauss further suggest that "the systematic development of theoretical notes can be thought of as a preliminary analysis" (1973:109).

The development of theoretical notes did serve these purposes for the researcher. The attempt to make conceptual sense of the events observed and related did provide a number of foci to guide the researcher through the mass of data. The researcher came to have a feel for what was happening. The field journal also proved to be of most value in the later stages of data analysis. By reviewing the notes, the researcher was often able to recreate the original mood and setting in which the events had taken place. As well, by analyzing the interpretations, recollections and reflections in the field journal, it became possible for the researcher to stand back and examine in a more objective fashion her underlying values and attitudes.

Data Analysis

The data produced by the research techniques chosen for this study resulted in predominantly written materials. The approach considered most valuable for studying the data obtained was content analysis utilizing the "grounded theory" approach developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). This approach was consistent with the intent of the researcher to study the data in an objective and systematic manner and the goal of discovering patterns that emerge from the data. Turner suggests that

> The grounded theory approach is likely to be of maximum use when it is dealing with qualitative data of the kind gathered from participant observation, from the observation of face-to-face interaction, from semi-structured or unstructured interviews, from case-study material or from certain kinds of documentary sources (Turner, 1981:227).

It should be noted that the researcher engaged in data analyzing activities early in the research process. Glaser and Strauss refer to this process as theoretical sampling.

Theoretical sampling is the process of data

> collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:45).

Schatzman and Strauss (1973) refer to basically the same process in somewhat different terms. They speak of the development of working hypotheses. From simple statements and propositions, sets of ideas emerge linked together by a story line or overriding pattern which, over a period of time, becomes evident. They further suggest that theoretical notes made during the research have been "the incubators of the critical linkages." This research process obliges the researcher to review field notes often. Information obtained from the informants needed to be transcribed quickly to allow the researcher to look for significant incidents, patterns of behavior and frequently recurring actions and statements which warranted further investigation.

For the final stages of data analysis, the researcher adopted with some modifications Turner's (1981) suggestions for organizing the cognitive processes associated with the generation of grounded theory based on the nine stages identified by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The nine stages are briefly described below and where applicable the researcher has expanded the description to account for variations peculiar to the research analysis carried out in the study.

Stage 1. Develop Categories

The written materials obtained in this study (transcribed taperecordings, weekly journals, observational notes, field journal) were analyzed in a very systematic and rigorous manner. The material was dealt with paragraph by paragraph. Following Turner's (1981:232) suggestion, the following question was addressed: "What categories, concepts or labels do we need in order to describe or to account for the phenomena discussed in this paragraph?" Each concept was given a label with a corresponding alphabetical code for retrieval purposes. Working with photocopies of the transcribed data, the researcher would cut out ~~and~~ glue onto a 4 x 6 index card the written information representing the identified and labeled concept. For each concept identified, a different code was used and noted at the top of each index card. As well, the date and page number of the reference were jotted down. When applicable, cross-references with other categories were identified at the bottom of the cards. Each participant was identified with a different color index card. At this stage, the labels used in the categorization process were not necessarily the ones that were retained by the researcher. They did possess, however, the essential characteristic described by Turner: "As far as the researcher is concerned, the label should fit the phenomena described in the data exactly" (1981:232).

Stage 2. Saturate Categories

The term as used by Glaser and Strauss refers to the process of accumulating additional examples of categories until the researcher becomes confident that no new understandings can be gained by coding further incidents of the same category. The researcher went through the material paragraph by paragraph labeling and coding concepts from the information obtained from three of the participants. In the case of the fourth participant, the researcher judged that the categories were saturated and that further coding would only add "bulk to the coded data and nothing to the theory" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:111). The researcher therefore verified the data of the fourth participant for examples of new categories but she did not follow the coding procedures outlined in stage one.

Stage 3. Abstract Definitions

Once the stage of "theoretical saturation" has been reached in the judgment of the researcher, one is faced with the task of producing an abstract definition for the categories. Turner considers this stage to be "crucial to the analyses", ...(for it often led to a) "deeper and more precise understanding of the nature of the phenomena being examined" (1981:236). The researcher followed a modification of this approach. At this stage in the research analysis, the researcher found it necessary to reduce the original list of categories for collecting and coding data. There was a need to elaborate a "smaller set of higher level concepts" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:110) which would allow for the integration of categories. It became evident that certain categories clumped together and were but instances of the same phenomenon. The researcher was able to reduce her original list of 42 labeled concepts or categories to six broad themes or domains. The themes could be defined in terms of the concepts or categories which they had subsumed (see p.55). These became the qualities or properties of the larger category. At this point interobserver agreement was sought. An external person was asked to examine the themes identified by the researcher based on the categories that had emerged from the data.

Stage 4. Use the Definitions

Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggest in the next stage that the definitions be used as a guide to recognize further instances of the phenomenon in question and as a source for stimulating intellectual processes. The researcher utilized the definitions generated in stage three to examine the data gathered from the fourth participant.

Stage 5. Exploit Categories Fully

At this stage, the researcher must be aware of additional categories which may derive from those that have been produced, of specific and general instances of the phenomena.

Stage 6. Note, Develop and Follow-up Links between Categories

Links between the categories began to emerge and thus permitted the researcher to develop tentative hypotheses. In this study, sorting the index cards into groups according to themes, participants, and time helped the researcher gain insight into emerging relationships.

Stage 7. Consider the Conditions under which the Links Hold

Conditions under which the hypothesized relationships occurred were examined.

Stage 8. Make Connections, where Relevant, to Existing Theory

At this point the researcher attempted to link propositions and hypotheses that arose from her analysis of data with the body of theory that existed in the field of teacher education. The researcher did not engage in this activity at the onset of the research process in order to avoid biasing the data collection and data analysis.

Stage 9. Use Extreme Comparisons to the Maximum to Test Emerging Relationships

Glaser and Strauss refer to this stage as the "constant comparative method":

> When beginning his generation of a substantive theory, the sociologist establishes the basic categories and their properties by minimizing differences in comparative groups. Once this basic work is accomplished, he should turn to maximizing differences among comparison groups, in accordance with the kind of theory he wishes to develop (substantive or formal) and with the requirements of his emergent theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:56-57).

Because of constraints of time and resources, this last step was not followed by the researcher. It was not possible to check for confirming or denying instances of the central propositions that emerged from the study in other settings. The importance of Glaser and Strauss's other settings. The importance of Glaser and Strauss's step number nine to test emerging relationships cannot be denied, however, in the development of formal theory.

The analysis of the data as described above resulted in the identification of six major themes: Awareness of Self, Beliefs about Education and Teaching, Feeling like a Teacher, Experiencing the Practicum,, Transformation, and Adopting Classroom Teacher Behavior. A listing of the categories which were used to define each of these themes is provided in Table I. The themes identified provided the beginnings of an understanding of the meanings that student teachers attach to their practicum experiences. The following three chapters attempt to provide an analysis of the themes and to present this information in narrative form supported by evidence from statements and behaviors from the participants. This is the culmination of the research process.

TABLE I

CONTENT ANALYSIS OF THE DATA
MAJOR THEMES IDENTIFIED AND CONSTITUTIVE CATEGORIES

Awareness of self	Beliefs about Education and Teaching	Feeling like teacher	Experiencing the practicum	Transformation	Adopting Classroom teacher behavior
. Describing oneself . Awareness of one's strengths . Awareness of one's weaknesses . Personal life - history	. Views on the educational process . Perceptions of the role of a teacher . Characteristics of the good teacher . Important elements in teaching . Expectations re: the teaching /learning process . Conceptions of subject matter . Personal philosophy of education . Relation between teaching and one's philosophy . Views on teacher/student relationships . Sources of one's beliefs	. Reasons for choosing teaching as a career . Feelings about teaching as a career . Ways of acting as "teacher" . Student teacher perceptions of student attitudes and behaviors . Feelings of student teachers towards students	. Views on the practicum . Disappointments . Satisfactions . Conflict/stress . Concerns (self-directed) (other directed) . Impact of cooperating teacher/faculty consultant	. Change in one's perception of teaching/the teacher . Change in one's ability to act in the role of teacher . Change in one's ability to analyze teaching . Impact of practicum experience . Influence of significant others	. Managing instruction . Teaching strategies . Planning a lesson . Knowing the classroom routine . Knowing the students . Knowing the school . Relating with students . Working with problem students . Evaluating student work . Establishing a class climate . Managing the classroom . Disciplining students

CHAPTER III

THE SETTING

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents a review of the Bachelor of Education program with particular emphasis on the practicum component. The distinguishing characteristics of phases I, II and III are specified. The second section provides a description of the participants. An autobiography of each of the participants provides general information about the life-history of the individuals in the study. An attempt has been made to provide the reader with an understanding of the perspectives on teaching which the participants brought to the practicum situation. Beliefs about teaching held by the major informants are described.

The Education Program

Faculté Saint-Jean provides students the opportunity to complete a B.A., a B.Sc. or a B.Ed. degree in the French language. Due to the increased demand for teachers capable of using French as the language of instruction in immersion or francophone settings, numbers of students enrolling in the B.Ed. program at the Faculté have increased considerably in the last few years. The B.Ed. program is organized so that in the first two years, secondary route students take primarily liberal arts courses in which they complete the majority of the courses required for their major and minor teaching specializations. The following two years of the program become progressively more oriented toward professional education courses. All secondary route students enrolled in the Faculté must complete either a major or a minor teaching specialization in French.

Education staff members of the Faculté profess themselves to be humanists. They view students as being the primary agent in the education process. The following statement is from, "Philosophy of Education" in the document Enseignement Pratique, Faculté Saint-Jean :

> Students, like all other human beings undergoing the process of individualization, are simultaneously the dynamic principle of their own development, the subjects expected to react to all the influences that bombard them, and, the makers of their own future (Enseignement Pratique , 1983:5).

The teacher is to be a guide and a facilitator of human learning and development. This requires that future teachers "be creative and responsible; capable of reflective reasoning and continued individual growth" (Enseignement Pratique , 1983:6).

The small size of the Faculté (under 300 students) facilitates student-student relationships and student-staff relationships. Class size is relatively small, rarely exceeding 30 students per class. It is not uncommon for staff members to know the names of all their students and to interact with them in the hallways and in the student lounge, for example. Students will often approach their professors for clarification regarding a topic discussed in class, class assignments, further discussion or general conversation. By the time students graduate from the Faculté, they generally know each other and most faculty members fairly well.

Description of the Practicum

The practicum is a major component of the teacher education program at Faculté Saint-Jean. In accordance with certification requirements of the province, students recommended for initial certification must have successfully completed 13 full weeks of student teaching. At Faculté Saint-Jean these 13 weeks are distributed over three phases. Although each phase has its own specific emphases and distinguishing characteristics, the three phases are designed to be sequential, cumulative, and complementary. Students normally begin their practicum experience in the second or third year of the four year B.Ed. program and complete the major portion of the practicum (phases II and III) in year four.

The orientation of the phase I course for B.Ed. Faculté Saint Jean secondary route students is primarily one of self-reflection. Wide-ranging theoretical philosophical questions such as: What is education? What is knowledge? What does it mean to be a teacher? are presented by the course instructor. The course provides for student participation both in in-class discussion and in various workshops given by guest lecturers from the Department of Education, teachers from the classroom and adolescents themselves. The student teachers observe in a classroom setting two half-days in phase I. There is no actual teaching carried out by the student teachers in this phase.

Phases II and III of the practicum are normally taken in the last year of the B.Ed. program. This year is referred to as the 'professional year' as only education courses are taken by the students. An attempt has been made to integrate theory and practice within this year, with students combining intensive blocks of time in professional education courses with increased teaching responsibilities in the classroom.

Phase II, given in the first semester, is preceded by a seven week block of intensive course instruction in which three curriculum and methodology courses are taken, two in the major area of specialization and one in the minor area of specialization. The following six weeks of the first semester are devoted to phase II. Students spend 10 full days within the six week time period in on-campus instruction. Emphasis is on lesson planning, unit planning and micro-teaching. Students are placed in a school setting for 20 full days in phase II. In this phase, student teachers are expected to share in the life of the classroom through such diverse activities as correcting student papers, preparing projects and exercises, working with small groups, or more intensively with students. As well, student teachers are expected to teach several complete lessons.

Phase III in the second semester is preceded by a four week intensive block of course instruction in media education and interpersonal communication for the classroom teacher. The following nine weeks of the semester are spent in a school setting. Two full day "come-back" sessions are held on campus within this nine week period. These sessions provide student teachers and the university professor responsible for coordinating phase III the opportunity to exchange ideas and reflect on the diverse experiences arising in a student teachng setting. Phase III permits initiation into the total professional life of a teacher. Students are responsible not only for lesson planning and teaching as in phase II but also for unit planning and teaching. As well, they are encouraged to participate as fully as possible in the life of the classroom teacher by attending staff meetings, in-service days and assuming teacher administrative duties when appropriate. Each student teacher is assigned to a cooperating teacher for the set period of time. Faculté Saint-Jean staff members involved in the teaching of phases I and II as well as those responsible for the curriculum and instruction courses serve as faculty consultants to the students during phase III. Evaluation of the student teacher in phase III is carried out by both the cooperating teacher and the faculty consultant.

Though the student teachers are generally placed in one school setting for the nine week period, some student teachers receive two different placements due to extenuating circumstances (teaching specialization of the student teacher, numbers of cooperating teachers available, limited number of schools using French as the language of instruction for a majority of the school day).

The following is a description of the phase III practicum placements for each of the participants in this study. Judy was placed in two different school settings--round one in Edmonton for five weeks teaching mathematics, science and physical education at the grade 7 level; round two in a large city other than Edmonton for four weeks teaching French and mathematics at the grades 7, 8, and 9 levels. John was given two separate rounds within one school setting in Edmonton. In the first four weeks, he was placed with a cooperating teacher responsible for mathematics in grades 9, 10, 11, 12. In the following five weeks, he was assigned to a cooperating teacher responsible for physics and mathematics in grades 10, 11, and 12. For the first round of student teaching in phase III, Denise was placed in a northern Alberta community teaching French at the grades 10, 11, and 12 levels. In her second round, she was placed in Edmonton with a cooperating teacher responsible for the teaching of English language arts, science and physical education at the grade 7 level. Michael was the only participant who received placement in one school setting with one cooperating teacher and the same group of students for the full nine weeks of student teaching in phase III. He was placed in an Edmonton school at the grade seven level with teaching responsibilities in the area of social studies and French.

Description of the Participants

The purpose of this study was to describe and interpret the meaning that student teachers attach to their practicum experiences. Each participant's student teaching experience was unique in that each defined the situation differently. Individual personal experiences with teachers and schools as students and a different set of familial relationships and influences, personal characteristics and beliefs were factors contributing to the uniqueness of each individual's student teaching experience. In order to understand the meaning of an experience by the actors involved, it is necessary to uncover the background context in which an individual's conceptions, assumptions and attitudes toward a given situation evolved. The meanings that individuals have do not arise in a vacuum. As Berger and Luckmann (1966:68) so aptly described: "The self cannot be adequately understood apart from the particular social context in which they were shaped."

In this section, the researcher presents a brief autobiography of each participant as well as a description of the more salient personal characteristics, statement of beliefs and feelings toward teaching that each of the four participants brought to the student teaching experience. Names of the participants have been changed in order to assure confidentiality. Verbatim statements made by the participants have been reported in the language in which they were given. The researcher did not wish to translate any of the statements for fear of misinterpreting the intent of the informants.

Judy

Autobiography

> I was born in a large city in Alberta in 1958, third child of a family of four girls. My schooling was done through public schools up until grade 12 at which point I went directly into university. The summer before that year, I had gone to Quebec on a summer program which really sparked an interest in French. I applied at Faculté Saint-Jean for my first year and was accepted. At the last minute, I had a change of heart and stayed in my home city where I enrolled in an arts program. I kept up my French and attended another French program at the end of my second year. My third year university was spent at a university in Quebec. In my last year I taught English to adults at the university in Quebec which was thoroughly enjoyable--I had something to offer them (my ability to speak English) plus I felt that they had much to offer me through their various experiences and of course their culture. I enjoyed Quebec so much that I returned there to work the following year. I felt that the year off was well worth it.
>
> At that point in time, I had had a few teaching experiences: the monitor program, outdoor education counsellor for a summer and swimming instructor but was not at all convinced that I wanted to teach. In fact, it was definitely not

> a consideration. It seemed to me that so many people went into education that I was determined to do something different. I worked in a government office the next year which to me was stifling. Now that I look back on that job, I think it did have more potential than I gave it credit. I then got a job with a school board and worked as an outdoor counsellor for the summer. I had lots of time to think about what I wanted to do and had decided that it would be one of two things--communications and broadcasting or something in French. I was enjoying the teaching in outdoor education and did know about Faculté Saint-Jean and so I decided to enroll in the B.Ed./AD program (even though my sister had a bad experience teaching and had gone through a hard time personally). There were two major reasons. Firstly, I felt my French was really slipping and I had spent a lot of time learning it, so why let it go, and secondly, my experiences teaching had been good ones.

Views on Teaching

As evidenced by the statements made in the autobiography, Judy's decision to enter teaching was one of mixed emotions. Her motives for entering teaching were varied. Her reply to a question from the researcher in phase I as to why she entered teaching was:

> Well for one thing the experience I had with teaching outdoor education. I really, really do love kids and I find it rewarding. You can't disregard that there are jobs in the west and I wanted to continue on with my French and you can't go on to Quebec because there's not enough jobs.

She remained unsure about her choice of career throughout her two year education program.

> I could say I wasn't totally convinced of teaching when I left school last year.

Judy continually sought reassurance that she was making the right decision.

> I know I have to go out there and teach and find out for myself if I like teaching because no one is going to tell me "Ah, Judy, you know you're good with people and you seem to like lots of activity" but it's still like I'm not as reassured.

Judy's feelings of uncertainty were a result of many circumstances. Public opinion regarding teaching as a profession was a source of anxiety.

> I'm nervous because I think that teaching has a really negative aspect. Everyone is sort of negative about it. All you hear about are teachers who correct every weekend, have troubles with the parents. It's a thankless job. Like the moments of reward are not worth the...you know the administrational things you go through or the boring work. That's what I honestly hear a lot about.

A more direct influence on Judy was her sister's decision to quit teaching after a few years to enter law.

> My sister is a teacher and she found it a challenge with interpersonal relations but she didn't find it a challenge intellectually. She respects teaching and she thinks it's a

> challenging job but she wants a different kind of challenge because she doesn't want to even have to face the smallest discipline problem, for example.

Judy worries about whether her personal traits and social interests will conflict with the demands of teaching.

> I have trouble organizing.
>
> I lack confidence and I lack sort of a work effort.
>
> I'm afraid of work. I don't ever want to leave my squash team behind or whatever else, but I just try to say more and more to myself: "If you want to have a career and you want to do well in it you're going to have to sacrifice something."

To be a teacher implies that you are capable of doing certain things.

> I don't think you can be totally disorganized in teaching. I think there's too many things to think about to be disorganized. You have 30 students whom you have to think about all individually and if you're totally disorganized I don't think you'll do a good job.
>
> You have to have a gift of giving out information, and if you don't have that gift, then you can't be a teacher.

Being a teacher evoked several other images. Judy does not wish to be identified with the stereotyped image of the teacher she believes many people have.

> I don't want those kids just to think "Ah, Ya! Same old thing, another teacher who's just gonna", not that every teacher barks but just you know their stereotype of a teacher and I don't want to be like that.

Nor does she want to be viewed by students as an authoritarian figure.

> I don't want to be going O.K. get over there and sit down in the corner. I don't want them to just sit down and accept everything that they're given. Like I don't want them to be looking and saying "Oh, that's the teacher you know" and getting all nervous about me being the teacher up there. Me being an authoritarian figure.

According to Judy,

> A good teacher is somebody who motivates the students to learn, who makes the students interested, and tries to open up their minds.

Returning from a half-day observation in a classroom in phase I, she makes the following comment about a teacher she has observed:

> Well, he never had to yell. He let the kids express themselves and he let them physically do things. There was lots of movement in class but then everytime they got a bit too aroused or excited, he'd just say O.K. He had control of them to the point where he could let them go to a certain point and then get them back. I thought that was good.

For Judy, schools should prepare individuals for their life in society.

The ability to socialize is important in the education system. Because you have to go out in society after and I can't stress enough that I don't think school gets you ready enough for what is going to come after.

To prepare the young for society and also personal development, I think that's really, really important. To be happy with yourself. I think we should try and work on what students are best at, at how they can develop themselves.

John

Autobiography

Born in the province of Quebec in 1962, I was raised in a middle-size French-Canadian family. Both my mother and father have always worked in an educational milieu. Whereas my mother is now teaching elementary children, my father is a college counsellor.

Throughout my childhood, I was constantly involved in different activities, especially in sports. I played on many teams and participated in numerous tournaments and championships. I learned to work towards a common goal within a group of people and I am particularly thankful to my parents and friends for their constant support and help. I owe my success to all of them.

Starting in high school, I slowly developed a special interest in sciences and languages. Because I enjoy learning, I think the study of sciences and languages offers me an exceptional way to open my horizons.

It was mainly as a result of my ever increasing interest and my constant desire to advance, as well as the great satisfaction I feel in the company of different types of people that, during

> my last year of college, I decided to go out west to study Education in an English speaking environment.
>
> Being now in my last year of University, I am looking forward to gaining experience in my chosen profession. My long term objective is to obtain, through experience and learning, the skills and knowledge I will need to serve my community better.

Views on Teaching

John had very positive views toward school, based on his previous experience as a student. He liked school and succeeded in school. He considers himself to have been a good student.

> J'ai toujours été l'élève modèle. Je n'étais pas parfait mais l'école, pour moi, c'était important et puis j'étais un bon élève qui étudiait et qui réussissait.

School was associated with many success experiences--being elected class president, participating in sports.

> Quand j'étais à l'elementaire, j'étais toujours président de classe et toujours le premier dans les sports. J'arrive au secondaire. C'était la même chose, toujours premier de classe et puis président de secondaire.

John' decision to enter teaching with a major in science came about as a result of his general dissatisfaction with the field of science. Though initially very interested in pursuing a career in science, he felt a need to choose a career which offered him closer contact with people.

> Cela ne répondait pas à mes besoins qui, à mon avis, étaient de rencontrer, de travailler en rapport plus étroit avec les gens plutôt que de simplement travailler de 8h à 5h dans un laboratoire et puis de se limiter strictement à l'étude des sciences.

Influencing John' decision to enter teaching was the model given him by his parents, especially his father.

> Quand je suis venu ici pour finalement entrer en éducation, je ne savais pas du tout si j'allais aimer ça. J'espèrais bien pouvoir l'aimer, d'ailleurs je viens d'une famille d'éducateurs. Mon père était professeur pendant longtemps--il est directeur actuellement-- et ma mère est professeur. Je vois mon père qui aime ce qu'il fait et puis je vois des étudiants qui l'apprécient et puis je me dis que mon père les aide.

John' general satisfaction with the education he received no doubt played a large part in his decison to choose a career which provided continuity with the successful experiences he had experienced in the school milieu.

> J'ai eu dans l'ensemble des bons et puis même certains très bon professeurs.

> Je pense que j'ai été extremement favorisé par l'éducation que j'ai reçu.

John entered teaching with definite ideas and beliefs about what teaching was, what the role of teacher was and what he wished to accomplish as a teacher. Teaching is viewed by John as a combination of art and technique.

> Quelqu'un peut sortir de l'université avec un paquet de techniques et puis être la pire mule qu'il soit. Alors, qu'une autre personne qui aime beaucoup les adolescents, qui s'intéresse beaucoup à la psychologie mais par compte qui n'a aucune technique, puis qui veut enseigner le français puis qui n'a fait aucune recherche en littérature, aucune lecture, je ne vois vraiment pas comment ce professeur là puisse faire sa première année [illegible] bon professeur.

Teaching is more than information giving. It involves relating wih others.

> C'est beaucoup plus que simplement donner des connaissances. Ça comprend tous les rapports et les relations l'un à l'autre.
>
> Ce ne sont pas des techniques comme telles qui vont dire si t'es bon ou pas. Mais simplement l'approche au niveau des étudiants.
>
> Le respect implique des choses aussi simples que de rentrer dans la classe et puis commencer par dire "bonjour". Je dirais aimer les personnes pour ce qu'elles sont non pas seulement arriver en avant de la classe et puis donner un paquet de matières.

The good teacher is one who shows respect for students, who can motivate students, who is well-organized.

> Cette espèce de qualité, un sentiment de ce qui se passe puis être capable de ressentir les autres.
>
> Un bon professeur? Personnellement les qualités que j'aimerais posséder c'est premièrement de ne jamais imposer mes volontés aux élèves.
>
> --de rendre ça au niveau de l'étudiant, de lui montrer que ce n'est pas juste des formules, que cela a des applications pratiques ....
>
> Même si tu as une relation d'égal à égal avec les étudiants, il faut que ce soit organisé d'une certaine façon et puis c'est à ce niveau là que je parle de cadre. Comment peux-tu arriver à obtenir une relation dans une classe qui est tout à fait désorganisée?

For John, teacher-student relationships should be based on mutual respect and understanding.

> Je pense que s'il y a quelque chose qui met un élève contre le professeur, c'est peut-être un professeur qui est arrogant et puis qui essaie de l'abaisser.

John affirms that the responsibility of learning belongs to the students, the responsibility of motivating the students belongs to the teacher:

> Je suis d'accord avec l'idée que c'est l'élève qui va apprendre. Ce n'est pas moi qui va lui rentrer des notions. C'est lui qui a la responsibilité de son apprentissage. Je ne peux pas les obliger à penser. Je pense que d'une manière ou d'une autre il serait mal de faire ça. Alors je dois les motiver.

Denise

Autobiography

I was born and lived in a small town in Alberta until the age of 17. I have very supportive parents. I sense their pride and love for their children. I have a sister who is a year younger than I and a brother who is four years younger.

I started school at five years of age, with absolutely no knowledge of the English language. I attended the separate elementary school where most classes were taught in French.

As long as I remember, I've always enjoyed school. I like reading and keeping myself occupied with all the knowledge that is available to everyone.

From the age of 10 until 15, I must have babysat at least three nights a week. I liked children (keeping them busy was sometimes quite a challenge). Then from the ages of 15 to 17 I worked in a local bakery, part-time after school and Saturdays.

As I was growing up, I enjoyed being a member of the following groups: 4-H Beef Club, Yearbook Committee, the school band and the French Club.

At the university level, I have been a member of the choir, and a member of a French folk dancing group.

Then I started student teaching. Because spare time is limited, I took up aerobic dancing as it can be done easily any place, any time. I also have a husband who is a member of a band. Somehow, we find time to meet between our busy schedules. I also have very close friends whose company I very much enjoy. Sunday mornings are for sleeping in, getting up just in time for church.

Views on Teaching

Denise's desire to be in contact with people was the main factor influencing her decision to enter teaching. "J'aime travailler avec des gens, avec des jeunes." She identifies herself as having been a good student in school. In an interview with the researcher in phase I, she speaks of her experiences as a student:

> J'ai toujours aimé l'école. C'était quelque chose de très positif que d'aller à l'école, puis de travailler ou de participer à la chorale ou quelque chose.
>
> J'ai toujours réussi. Mais il fallait que je travaille pour bien réussir. J'avais beaucoup de motivation, trop peut-être.
>
> I enjoyed school. I guess that's the way I was. I did my best to work. I did my best for the teacher a lot of the times.

Denise finds it relatively easy to make the transition from student to teacher.

> I've always liked talking to people and helping people. I have a knack of dealing with children. People would actually say, "she's a born teacher or she's made to work with people" and stuff like that. I don't know how much of that sunk in but I think it was an important factor.

As the preceding statements indicate, school was generally a very positive experience for Denise. She attributes much of her success in school to the strong family support received. "Je pense qu'une des plus importantes choses c'est le support de la famille." She views lack of parental support and involvement as a possible cause of student disinterest in school.

> Peut-être qu'il n'y a pas de support chez eux pour bien réussir, ou de l'encouragement ou de l'intérêt des parents dans ce que l'élève fait. Il n'y a personne d'intéressé s'ils font leurs devoirs.

Teacher interest in the lives of their students is extremely important to Denise. She considers herself fortunate in having had such teachers.

> J'ai eu beaucoup de bons professeurs. Ils prennaient le temps de discuter, au commencement du cours, les activités du soir d'avant ou si on avait eu du trouble avec nos devoirs ou des questions plus personnelles. Ceux que j'ai bien aimé -- ce sont ceux qui offraient aux élèves qui avaient beaucoup de difficultés de venir après l'école puis ils les aidaient.

A good teacher is one who is patient, who has a sense of humor and especially who takes an interest in her classes. "C'est quelqu'un qui prend un intérêt dans la classe." This belief is confirmed after a few days of observation time in the classroom.

The most important thing is being interested in

> students as individuals and as people.
>
> La patience, un sens d'humour, un intérêt dans les gens. L'intérêt c'est le plus important. Et puis une certaine connaissance des matières pour arriver à pouvoir avoir une assez bonne compréhension.

According to Denise, teachers can demonstrate their interest for students in the following ways:

> Penser à plus d'activités ou l'élève pourrait participer et où l'enseignant pourrait demander aux étudiants indirectement quels sont leurs intérêts dans certains thèmes, essayer de travailler avec les élèves, créer des activités où les élèves pourraient approfondir leurs intérêts.

Good teaching for Denise involves student participation. Though she experienced much success in school, she views her teachers as having being very traditional in that the student was a passive learner.

> C'était tres passif. Tu écoutais au profeseur et puis à l'examen tu répétais ce dont tu te souvenais.

The teacher was responsible for directing all student activity. Students expected to be directed, to be given the answers. This caused some problems for Denise in adapting to her role as university student.

> Quand je suis venu ici à l'université, j'ai eu beaucoup de misère à m'adapter en première année,

> à l'auto-discipline et à la resonsabilité de soi. Avant, à l'école, c'était facile de réussir parce que les professeurs nous disaient exactement ce qu'ils voulaient, exactement quoi faire.

As a future teacher, she will seek to involve students in the learning process, to act as a facilitator of student learning.

> Je pense que si l'on amène l'élève à participer, ce genre d'apprentissage serait plus intéressant et puis l'élève pourrait s'en souvenir et puis même l'appliquer dans d'autres milieux.
>
> Enseigner! Pour moi, je dirais que c'est le rôle du facilitateur. Quelqu'un qui dirige les élèves, qui les aide à trouver pour eux-mêmes.

Student participation need not be limited to activities in the classroom. For Denise many valuable experiences occurred within the school setting outside the classroom -- going on field trips, viewing a dance troupe, a play , etc. Denise views these kinds of activities as enhancing student interest and motivation.

Michael

Autobiography

I was born in a bilingual Catholic family in

Quebec. My mother being English and my father French-Canadian, I was lucky enough to learn both languages.

My elementary studies were done in French while most of my high-school years were in English. I then transfered back to French for college where I spent two years.

It was during the summer of 1980 while working in a summer camp with socially unadapted children that I discovered my profound love for children. At that time I was accepted at a University in Quebec in Educational Psychology but two weeks later I received an acceptance letter from the Faculté Saint-Jean in Edmonton.

I liked the idea of going west. I knew that in the area of education my chances of getting a job would be better than in Quebec. I was also attracted by the idea that I would be able to use both of my languages equally and independently. Thus, I decided to come and study at the Faculté Saint-Jean.

I arrived in Edmonton in September of 1980 and since then, I have been twice a second language monitor. One year in a high school, the second year in a junior high school setting. I throughly enjoyed these experiences.

The next two summers I worked for a summer immersion program as an "animateur socio-culturel."

These experiences among others have made me realize that teaching is my vocation. Right now I'm impatiently waiting to finish my B.Ed. and to begin my career.

Views on Teaching

As evidenced from Michael's autobiography, he had many experiences working with young people prior to student teaching. Working with young people was very rewarding to Michael. He was happy relating with them, organizing games for his brother and friends and helping them out.

> J'ai travaillé avec des jeunes dans des camps d'été, des choses comme ça. J'ai travaillé avec des mésadaptés sociaux durant un été et puis ça m'a vraiment ouvert le coeur aux jeunes. Je pense que c'est une de mes premières expériences qui m'a vraiment frappé et puis qui m'a fait réaliser que vraiment j'étais attaché aux jeunes. Un autre exemple disons, c'est banale un peu mais mon petit frère avait quatorze ans et puis j'ai toujours été dans la cours en arrière avec tous ses amis. Je faisais le "coach" pour eux autres en football. Quand je voyais mon petit frère et puis ses amis en arrière je sortais avec eux. Ils étaient contents. Je les voyais heureux puis ça me rendait tellement heureux.

Michael's decision to become a teacher was based on his desire and commitment to working with young people. Contrary to the other participants where the major attractor to teaching was the interpersonal contact with people, Michael's reasons also portray evidence of a "service" or "vocation" theme. Besides wanting to work with young people, he wants to help them.

> Je voulais m'en aller en enseignement parce que j'aime les jeunes et puis je veux les aider. Je me sens à l'aise premièrement et puis deuxièmement c'est que ça me rend heureux.

Michael feels that he has a lot to give to young people.

> Je pense que je peux avoir des choses à donner aux adolescents. Ça me fait plaisir quand je peux aider quelqu'un. Ça c'est la valeur de vie qui prime.

He perceives himself to be a "leader" and past experience has offered him many opportunities to act as a "leader."

> Depuis que j'étais tout jeune, j'étais chef de groupe puis responsable de ci et de ça. J'ai eu beaucoup à travailler en groupe. J'aime ça me sentir responsable.
>
> J'aime être un leader. Ça part de loin. Quand j'étais plus jeune dans les sports, les emplois, les cours d'été.

Michael attaches a great deal of importance to the "social" values in life. It is important to be able to make people happy, to say thank you, to show one's appreciation, to help somebody.

> Rendre quelqu'un heureux je pense que c'est mon but principal dans la vie. Quand on peut faire plaisir à quelqu'un et puis que ça ne coûte rien, dire merci ou aider un veillard à traverser une rue, ouvrir la porte. Ce sont des petites choses comme ça qui peuvent faire plaisir.
>
> C'est beau avoir beaucoup de connaissances et puis tout ça mais quand on n'est pas capable de dire merci ou on n'est pas capable d'apprécier ce qui nous est donné, c'est déplorable.

Michael credits his parents with having provided him with a good upbringing.

> J'ai eu de très bon parents que j'adore, puis ils m'ont transmis beaucoup de bonnes valeurs. J'ai eu un bon milieu familial, un bon milieu social, je n'ai pas eu de problèmes, je suis en parfaite santé.

The personal convictions that Michael has regarding the important values in life carry over in his views on teaching. Michael views teaching as including the transmission of knowledge and values of life. He describes his philosophy of education in this way:

> Disons que ma philosophie est axée sur le bien de l'élève. Je ne me vois pas en classe en train d'instruire des "Einsteins" ou quelque chose comme ça mais des êtres humains capables de vivre en société.
>
> La connaissance pour moi c'est moins important que les valeurs de vie.

Transmitting values is the basis for distinguishing between being a teacher and being an educator. Michael makes the following distinction in an interview given during phase I.

> L'éducateur, la différence c'est que lui va, non seulement verser des connaissances, mais il va verser des valeurs de vie.
>
> --strictement professeur c'est ce qui se passe en salle de classe. L'éducateur va au delà de la salle de classe, par exemple dans les couloirs, dans la cours de récréation et en dehors des heures de classe.

Michael remembers a few teachers whom he considers to have been educators. He hopes to model himself on these teachers when he becomes a teacher.

> Il y a un professeur entre autre qui m'a relativement frappé en étant non seulement un professeur mais un éducateur.
>
> J'avais un professeur de géographie 'super', 'super' puis je veux l'imiter. Il était tellement dynamique, le sourire aux lèvres, gentil. On l'aimait. On a travaillé, puis j'ai appris et c'était intéressant. J'aimerais ça l'imiter.

The area of interpersonal relationships is very important to Michael. Of all of the participants, Michael referred to this theme most frequently in interviews with the researcher, in his weekly journal and in his class assignments.

The good teacher is one who can command respect from his students without having to impose his authority, who is liked by his students and who is available to them.

> Un bon professeur est celui qui n'a pas besoin d'imposer d'autorité, d'imposer de la discipline en classe. Un professeur qui va rentrer en classe et puis les étudiants n'auront pas besoin de se faire avertir avant d'écouter.
>
> Un professeur qui est aimé par les étudiants.
>
> La disponibilité du professeur est très importante aussi.

In relating with students, Michael feels that a teacher should strive to be just and equitable. This will help reduce power struggles within the classroom.

> J'aimerais bien que l'étudiant dise que je suis juste.
>
> Si tu es toujours juste dans les critères de base que tu donnes, par exemple: la gomme, arriver en retard, des choses comme ça. Si tu es juste, bien, ça peut déja abolir des conflits de pouvoir.

As a teacher he will seek to be firm but sensitive to the need to provide moments of relaxation and humor.

> J'aimerais avoir une discipline ferme, Je vais être très ferme et puis je voudrais être sévère et tout ça, mais je vais quand même avoir des moments de "relax", des moments de comédies tout en relation avec la matière. Je voudrais être ferme et intéressant.
>
> Les étudiants apprécient des petits "gags". Ça fait un petit contact humain et puis je trouve ça important. Juste des petites choses pour aider l'étudiant à t'accepter comme personne. S'ils t'acceptent ils vont gober plus.

In keeping with his personal beliefs he will strive to be an educator. "Pour moi c'est important non seulement d'être professeur mais éducateur."

Summary

In sketching the portrait of each participant, it becomes evident that each one's life-history is unique but that there are commonalities which exist among all four participants. All of the participants liked school as students and identified themselves as good students. They were comfortable with the school setting. A strong affiliation toward school was present. School evoked memories of good teachers, good times, academic success and involvement in extra-curricular activities. Significant others played a role in the attitudes and beliefs that the participants had toward teaching. They viewed their parents as having been supportive and interested in their school life. The influence of good teachers is also noteworthy. When expressing their views on teaching in general and more particularly on the good teacher, the participants would often prefix their comments by the following statement: "I remember I had a teacher who would ...." The good teacher remembered by the participants often became models on which the participants based themselves for their future actions as teachers. The participants resembled each other in that interpersonal contact was the major attractor to teaching. They all chose teaching as a career because they liked working with people, especially young people. All had had previous experience working with children.

CHAPTER IV

THE PRACTICUM AS EXPERIENCED

Introduction

The previous chapter sought to describe the personal interpretations toward teaching held by the individual participants based on the unique vantage point of their life history. This chapter describes how the participants came to define themselves as student teachers and began to share group specific perspectives regarding the practicum event through their actions, perceptions, interpretations and beliefs. It is important to point out that the participants' definition of the situation evolved over the 18 month period as they developed more contact with the school community. The researcher has endeavored to present a picture of the practicum as experienced by the student teacher. In particular the chapter addresses three main issues: (1) the participants' views and definitions of the various practicum phases, (2) the concerns of the participants, and (3) the constituent rules of the practicum as learned by the participants.

Viewing the Practicum

The practicum component of the teacher education program was considered the highlight of the participants' professional preparation. They saw the practicum courses as the primary means of entry into their chosen profession. The practicum experiences were seen as giving a focus and direction to the remainder of the teacher education program. There was a feeling that you could "flub" other university courses and still get by as a teacher but you had to do well in the practicum, especially phase III. This phase was viewed as the ultimate test for a theoretical knowledge of teaching no longer sufficed. Student teaching had "the texture of reality" which was both appealing and frightening to the participants.

Phase I--"Defining the Situation"

The participants perceived each phase of the practicum differently. Phase I was perceived as the entry point into the world of teaching. Students come to the teacher education program with a definition of the situation based on their personal experience as a student and on what others have said about teaching. In this study, the phase

I practicum course helped students make the transition between their former status as students and their impending role as teacher. It helped students define the situation from another vantage point. For the participants, this involved a shift in viewing teaching from the perspective of teacher rather than student. Iannaccone (1963) refers to the importance of this "transition" stage in the making of a teacher:

> The first stage of the transition is the student's break with her former status. Even before the actual separation occurs, she is given cues about the impending change through the education program at the university (Iannaccone, 1963:74).

The emphasis given to the phase I course by the professor engaged students in reflection on the teaching/learning process as it exists in a classroom setting. Students were confronted with the following issues: What is teaching? What does it involve? What are students like? For some students, phase I evoked feelings of anticipation, for others it became a time of self-examination and still for others it confirmed their beliefs and attitudes about teaching. The following comments were made by the participants regarding the phase I course:

> Le cours (phase I) m'aide beaucoup à voir clair.

> Le cours m'ouvre les yeux à cette carrière. (Michael)
>
> Le cours a simplement confirmé et solidifié mes attitudes et mes perceptions de l'enseignement. (John)
>
> The "enseignement pratique" class does help you see the other's point of view. I think our prof really helped. She's very enthusiastic about teaching and makes you respect teaching. That's one thing I really learned was that not everybody can be a teacher and that teaching is a very important career and not everyone can do it. (Judy)
>
> The "enseignement pratique" course will be good for me because I'll learn how to get along in a group better. Sometimes I just can't see other people's point of view I don't think and I've got to learn how to do that. (Judy)

Phase II--"Preparing to Teach"

Whereas phase I was viewed as the first reading of the play in which the participants played the part of teacher/actor, the phase II professional semester was considered as the stage on which one rehearsed. In this study, the first seven weeks of curriculum and methodology courses followed by the six week phase II practicum can be described as the period "preparing to teach." Within this period, the student teachers were involved in learning the "what" and the "how" in the curriculum and methodology courses of their teaching specializations and in observing classes, assisting the teacher, preparing and teaching some lessons in the school-based portion of phase II . Though one could make a case that an individual having chosen teaching as a career is preparing to teach from the very first class he attends at university, there is an intensity of feeling and emotion which is particular to the period prior to actual teaching. There is a realization that the moment of truth is at hand. Where previously many students had felt free to engage in criticism of the education process in general, they now began to wonder how they would fare in an actual situation. They could no longer play the role of detached observer. A personal interest and "engagement" was expressed: "Je me dis que pour vraiment voir ce que ça donne, il va falloir que je l'essaie moi-même." (John)

Even though the students engaged in some teaching in phase II, the experience was not viewed as the "real thing." At an informal social gathering at the completion of phase II, two of the participants in this study expressed the view that they still were not teachers. John stated that he did not feel like a teacher because he still did not know what teaching was all about. Although he had taught 17 lessons in phase II, these classes represented isolated units. According to John, a real teacher must be responsible for preparing every lesson, all day, every day.

A real teacher must be responsible for the total physical, emotional and intellectual development of his students. John affirms that he did not do this in phase II. They were not his students, his class to whom he was resposible for their development. He concluded by saying that perhaps he was reacting this way because of the worry of having to prepare eight classes each day when he got to phase III. Michael makes the analogy that not having taught is like not having had children. It is difficult to say what it is all about until you have had the experience. This experience would be gained in phase III.

Phase III--"Actually Teaching"

The participants were unanimous in viewing phase III as the focal point of their student teaching experience and of their teacher education program. Though phases I and II contributed to defining the situation and preparing one to teach, the real challenge was phase III, where you had "real" interaction with an audience on an every day, full day, all day basis. Prior to phase III, the following type of comment was often made: "I know we have to teach all the time in phase III and I'm looking forward to that" (Judy).

The nine week phase III practicum was viewed with mixed reactions and feelings. Generally phase III was seen as a valuable learning experience. The experience was satisfying in that it affirmed teaching as their choice of career:

> Je suis content. J'ai aimé ce que j'ai fait et puis je suis content de finir aussi. Il y a eu des hauts et des bas, de mauvaises et de bonnes expériences. Dans l'ensemble j'aime ça. (John)
>
> Triste de terminer ça. Il me semble que j'ai commencé quelque chose puis je n'aime pas finir ça de même. Tu donnes neuf semaines de ton temps, tu te dévoues, tu fais toutes sortes de choses, tu fais des travaux. Puis là, bonjour, merci. Alors je trouve ça plate! (Michael)

The participants felt that the student teaching experience had provided them with some concrete understandings of life in the classroom as a teacher.

> J'ai appris pas mal de choses. Quand tu pratiques ça change beaucoup, quand tu n'as pas fait partie du rôle, tu ne peux pas comprendre le rôle. (Michael)
>
> I learned a lot about the reality of teaching. The amount of work it involves, the time and also how careful you have to be because you're dealing with people and the feelings of individuals. It involves a lot of being open to others and being aware of others. It's a lot of work. It gives you a taste of what you'll be living if you want to do teaching as a career. You get the practical experience. I mean, you're in it. (Denise)

John identifies as important the experience of being alone with a class:

> L'expérience des stages te donne l'expérience concrète d'être tout seul avec une classe. C'est le contact élève, professeur, classe ....

Though all the participants spoke of the experience as being valuable in their professional preparation as future teachers, three of the four participants expressed feelings of disappointment with some aspects of the situation. For the most part, these feelings revolved around characteristics unique to the practicum situation: cooperating teacher relationships, evaluation of the student teacher, following an established way of doing things and limited time to make any significant changes.

The participants expressed the feeling that student teaching represented a "no man's land." Judy says:

> I don't feel like a teacher, but I don't feel like a student either. I don't feel like I'm a teacher because it's not my class or anything but I don't feel like a student.

John makes similar comments:

> J'ai l'impression que je suis un étudiant. Face aux élèves je me sens comme professeur mais face à moi-même je me sens comme étudiant puis face aux professeurs qui vont venir m'évaluer.
>
> J'ai l'impression que dans le fond les stages c'est comme n'importe quel autre cours ou le professeur te dit: "Voilà ce que tu dois faire, voilà ce que j'exige de toi, vas-y fais le

travail." Le travail c'est d'enseigner.

The phase III experience allowed the participants access to certain domains of teaching but others were inaccessible. They judged phase III to have provided them with the opportunity to be responsible for the domains of classroom instruction and classroom management. Michael says:

> Préparation d'examens, matière, tout ça, 100%, tu te sens professeur. C'est ta matière, c'est toi qui prépare tout ça, tu fais tes examens, tu fais tes corrections. L'autorité elle est propre à toi. C'est toi qui dois l'établir. Mais à l'intérieur de neuf semaines il y a des choses que tu ne peux pas atteindre tout de suite comme ça. Par exemple, des choses qui se passeront après la période des stages, je ne serai pas là. Alors je me sentais un peu en dehors. A toutes les fois qu'il y a la fête d'un professeur, je ne connais pas le professeur.

John makes a similar statement:

> Je considère, en ce qui a trait à la matière, tout dépendait de moi mais quand même je suis conscient qu'il y a beaucoup de choses qui entourent que je ne faisais pas nécessairement.

As a student teacher, you had little impact dealing with students outside the four classroom walls:

> S'il y avait eu un problème réel avec un élève, j'ai l'impression que ça n'aurait pas été nécessairement moi qui l'aurait résolu. Je pense que j'ai surtout concentré sur ce qui se passe dans la classe. Comment est-ce que je peux me

> permettre de dire, par exemple si cet élève devrait songer à faire telle ou telle chose? Comment est-ce que tu peux arriver à t'occuper des choses comme ça alors que tu vois ces élèves là cinq semaines? (John)

Michael relates an incident in class in which he referred to "we, the teachers" and to which a grade 7 student responded: "Monsieur, vous n'êtes pas un professeur, vous êtes un stagiaire." Michael explains that in being labeled a student teacher one is not allowed full participation in the world of the classroom even though one may engage in the same daily pattern of activities in the classroom as the cooperating teacher. There is a fine line of demarcation based on pupil and cooperating teacher expectations and assumptions which cannot be crossed because of the label. There is a sense that one is still not a "real" teacher.

> Je pense que tous mes beaux idéaux je pourrai les mettre en pratique quand je serai vraiment professeur mais en attendant c'est évident que ça tombe parce que ça demeure un cours. Je m'aperçois que si je veux passer à travers des stages il faut que je continue dans la routine établie. (John)

Preparing for Next Year

As the participants settled in to the phase III practicum situation and became more secure in their role as teacher, there was a shift in interest from concern about what was happening now to "what I will do next year when I have my own class." This concern became more prominent with the realization that having their own classes was less than five months away. Two of the participants, Michael and John, had signed contracts with school boards during the phase III experience. The two other participants had had interviews and were eagerly awaiting responses to their application for employment.

Whereas previously the phase III experience had been the focal point around which all else revolved, the participants began to look beyond phase III to envision what their classes would be like next September. Rather than viewing the student teaching experience as an end in itself, the participants began to interpret the experience in terms of "how it can help me for next year." They also began to justify their actions in the classroom in terms of "next year it will be different when I have my own class." With the realization that they could affect little change in the classroom within their role as student teacher, there was an unspoken attitude of "this is something I have to do to get through." Midway through the phase III practicum, Judy states:

> I know I've to go through this and I'm not going to have my own class right away so I'm just going to go through it.

A few weeks later, after having had a difficult time getting student attention in a science class and experiencing conflict with the cooperating teacher, Judy makes the comment that it is too late to change for this student teaching round but next time things will be different.

> I suppose I have a defeatist attitude. Like this is it for this practice teaching and I'll just try next time. I know it's not over yet. I should try right away.

John speaks of the difficulty of taking over an established class climate. He looks forward to establishing a climate with his own class next year.

> Je suis encore dans une situation de stage et puis le climat de l'autre professeur est déjà tout là et puis tout ça. Mais, je pense à l'année prochaine et puis je me dis, que je vais établir des limites des la première classe.

Concerns

Situations in which individuals must follow in another's shoes, evaluate and be evaluated, be assertive and directive in front of students while deferent to their more experienced mentors, act as though they know what teaching is all about while learning about teaching are difficult for even the most experienced teacher. Such is the nature of the practicum. In addition, student teachers must cope with feelings of doubt and insecurity regarding their suitability for the chosen occupation. Knowledge about teaching is quite different from knowing that one can act as a teacher and has the desire to do so. Underlying the more immediate preoccupations of the participants is their concern that they have perhaps made a wrong career choice after having invested three years of their time moving toward this goal. The practicum is viewed as a means of confirming or refuting the choice of occupation.

The nature of teaching as an occupation is a source of concern for two of the participants. Judy addresses the question of the restraining nature of teaching as a profession:

> I have to feel that I have improved myself or something. I think it would be great if I could learn something every day, that would really make me feel good. Here with the grade 7's you learn stuff about people and how to discipline kids but sometimes that's not my idea of improving oneself.
>
> I feel like I haven't done anything for myself today. I don't want to sit there and talk to my friends or people I meet about the grade 7 kids and how they're undisciplined. I want to be able to talk about, I don't know, some author or something like that.

> I think in education that you have to make a few more compromises than in other jobs, jobs that are your basic 9:00 to 4:00. You think about your job but you don't have to do any work apart from your specified hours.

John worries that teaching will offer him limited mobility.

> Tu commences professeur et d'ici quelques années tu deviens bon professeur après ça tu peux être maître-professeur mais après quoi? Tu arrives à 30-35 ans et puis tu touches au plafond. Tu ne peux plus aller vraiment plus haut et puis tu as beau travailler pour être bon professeur et puis tout ça mais tu sais que de l'autre coté un autre ne fait rien, il a le même salaire, les mêmes conditions. Après dix ans d'enseignement tu dois dire, qu'est-ce que ça me donne de tant me forcer. C'est un peu ce plafond là qui m'a tout le temps posé des questions.

Concerns of a more immediate nature confronted participants as they progressed through the different practicum phases. These ranged from a preoccupation with self in the role of teacher, to cooperating teacher relationships, to classroom management problems.

Self in the Role of Teacher

Becoming a teacher for the novice can be likened to an adventure into the unknown somewhat like driving a car for the first time. Having been a passenger in a car on many occasions does not alleviate your concerns about being in the driver's seat. The landmarks may be familiar but each curve, each road sign, each signal becomes of paramount importance. Initial feelings of insecurity, inadequacy and discomfort set in. The practicum places the participants in the driver's seat. It is a time for learning the role of teacher and also one of experiencing the pressures associated with that role. As such, the participants experienced stress and anxiety. Congruent with the findings of Fuller (1969), Fuller and Brown (1975) and Bernstein (1978), there is a step-stage developmental sequence to teacher concerns from a beginning phase of concern with self-preservation, to concern with "self" as teacher, to a later phase of concern for the students.

Anticipating what would actually occur in student teaching and how they would make out as teachers became a preoccupation in the weeks preceding the phase II practicum placement. The participants expressed feelings of eager expectancy mingled with those of anxiety and uncertainty about the forthcoming practicum experience. The following comments illustrate this well:

> Devant la phase II qui approche, j'ai quand même une certaine hésitation, une certaine crainte. C'est pas tant une crainte que simplement une espèce de nervosité. (John)

> J'ai une espèce de crainte du côté discipline. Pas que je n'ai pas confiance que je ne suis pas capable de le faire mais un petit peu d'énervement là. (John)

> Ce qui me fait peur c'est que supposons que t'arrives dans une classe et puis que vraiment l'atmosphère de la classe est négative, vraiment ça me ferait quelque chose. J'aurais l'impression de perdre mon temps et puis d'enseigner juste pour l'argent. (John)

> J'ai eu peur de la réaction des jeunes, qu'ils pensent "nous autres on veut un prof en avant là, pas un amateur qui a des faiblesses." (Michael)

> J'ai peur d'arriver devant la classe et puis de rester figer et puis de rester coller strictement à mes notes et puis de ne pas être capable d'en sortir. (John)

In the initial encounters with each new class, concerns revolved around the "self" of the individual. Feeling awkward and dependent, the participants were unable to react and interpret simultaneously the multiple cues bombarding their senses. Like the first time driver, attention became so focused on the act of driving they were unable to relax and think of the journey. They were unable to relate to what was happening around them. They were consumed by what was happening to "me."

> I am more preoccupied with myself than with the students. My preoccupation is with how I will transmit the subject matter.

Another student states:

> I am scared so I think about myself, what I will do.

Even after several weeks in the classroom in phase III, Judy speaks of her difficulties in seeing the students.

> I really noticed that I don't see the group as individuals.
>
> When you're in the milieu of a school, I find it hard to think of them as individuals. Like I can't even see them, that surprised me a bit this morning when a student said "My Dad did it this way." I don't even seen them in the context of their own home.

Being liked by students is very important and was a particularly sensitive issue for the participants. For Judy, her insecurities were partly a result of feeling not liked by students and not being liked by students was a source of insecurity. Viewing a replay of a lesson she thought had gone extremely poorly because of disciplinary problems, she says:

> Even with the kids who I thought more or less liked me, which is important to me if they like me, I just think they were thinking "geez what's with this lady today."
>
> This little guy here, he really liked me I know at the very beginning and he's starting not to. He talks less to me and he said something like "you're really bad" or something and then he went "I'm just kidding" but still I feel like he's more distant and he doesn't come up so much to

talk to me.

Concern with the personal self shifted to a concern for the professional self in the first few weeks of actual teaching. Student teachers returning to campus for a "come-back session" three weeks after the commencement of phase III were generally enthusiastic but spoke of panic when the cooperating teacher introduced them to their classes, gave them seven different textbooks to study and asked them when they wished to start. They spoke of feeling helpless when confronted with the multitude of decisions that had to be made by a teacher. "What do you do when a student disobeys, speaks out of turn, swears? How do I react to this?" They spoke of the need to be organized and to know one's subject matter well enough so that one could attend to class disruptions without losing track of the lesson.

As the participants became more at ease in the development of their professional self-image, there was an increased awareness of student needs.

> There's a few kids in the class who really need work. They need to go back to their multiplication tables or something and I'd like to give them extra work. I don't want to just continue. (Judy)

> I can't give Annie the attention she needs. Right now I'm frustrated. I find it really hard to give out discipline and do everything at the

> same time. So when Annie comes up and she needs a smile, she needs real special attention and you can't give it to her, I find that very frustrating. (Judy)

> That student needs help. That's one of the most frustrating things. It's not being able to reach the kid or solve the problem or even get him to think about the problem seriously. (Denise)

Cooperating Teacher--Student Teacher Relationships

Cooperating teacher--student teacher interactions emerged as the greatest potential source of conflict in the practicum situation. The crucial role of the cooperating teacher in the student teaching experience cannot be diminished when interpreting the practicum event. To a great extent, the experience of the student teacher is influenced by the cooperating teacher. The participants in this study quickly came to a realization of this fact and acted accordingly. It did not reduce, however, the concerns that this situation created for the student teacher.

The participants anticipated the effect that the cooperating teacher would have on their success in student teaching. Responding to a projective type open-ended series of questions given by the researcher prior to phase III, the participants all indicated that they were concerned with the relationship they would be able to establish with their cooperating teacher. The responses show that they are looking for reassurance, guidance, support. To the statement: "I'm hoping my cooperating teacher will----------", Michael responds: "be open and honest with me concerning my teaching skills and help me to improve my interaction with the students as well as my teaching methods." Judy hopes that the cooperating teacher will "let me teach the classes myself but also give me support and his/her constructive criticism." For John, it is important that the cooperating teacher be "positif et soucieux." Denise hopes her teacher will be a "positive thinker."

The participants express mixed feelings about the role they wish their cooperating teacher to actually play. They are often ambivalent, expressing their need for security and direction on the one hand while seeking autonomy and independence on the other. Referring to the role he wishes his cooperating teacher to have, John says:

> Dans un certain sens, j'aimerais avoir plus de feedback du professeur. De l'autre côté, j'aime mieux qu'il ne soit pas là parce que quand il est dans la classe, il influence le climat de la classe.

Though there were few incidents of outright conflict with the cooperating teacher, there were occasions when emotions were bottled up in order to maintain harmony. The participants were often frustrated by the limited freedom they had to change the way things were. It was easier to settle into an existing routine rather than attempt to make changes within a limited time period. At times, this was a source of conflict for the participants as it demanded that they put up with a situation contrary to their way of viewing the teaching/learning process and the expectations they had had regarding how they would act in the classroom.

The participants experienced conflict when they perceived that the cooperating teacher held views on the teaching/learning process that were contrary to their own beliefs and values. After the first few days of phase III, Judy commented: "I just see things that I wouldn't do that the cooperating teacher does." John made the following statements regarding one of his cooperating teachers:

> Tu as beau discuté avec lui mais quand un dit noir puis l'autre dit blanc, c'est assez difficile d'obtenir quelque chose qui a du bon sens au bout de la ligne. Aussi dans des situations ou mon bac aurait en bonne partie compté sur ce professeur, c'est quand même assez difficile de dire "je ne le fais pas."
>
> Si tu regardes la façon que moi j'ai enseigné pendant une heure puis tu regardes la façon que l'enseignant coopérant va enseigner pendant une heure, je pense que ça va se ressembler. Mais c'est à la base que ça diffère beaucoup. Au sens ou moi j'ai vraiment l'impression que les élèves sont importants alors que pour lui ça ne compte pas.

> Etant donné qu'on préconise différents enseignements, j'ai de la difficulté quand il vient parce que je vais à l'encontre de ce qu'il fait comme enseignement.

At times it was not so much the overt statements or actions made by the cooperating teacher which influenced the class climate but the non-verbal signs. John relates an incident in which he asked his students in a physics class to prepare a short paper on the impact of electricity in their lives. The students generally did not react favorably to this assignment. Although the concept of electricity was part of the program of studies, they felt that in physics they should not have to write essay type papers. John described the cooperating teacher's reaction to the assignment:

> Il n'a pas dit aux élèves non faites-le pas! Il a dit aux élèves que Monsieur avait dit de le faire. Mais il était tellement hésitant lui-même, il est resté tellement surpris ....

Judy describes the feelings of uneasiness she had in relating with one of her cooperating teachers.

> I'm feeling a little tension between myself and the cooperating teacher. I think he knows I don't have the same sort of ideas as he does and that I really want to try to teach but lots of times we won't communicate.
>
> It's not that we don't get along, we get along fine, but we don't really communicate.

She is uncomfortable with the importance she perceives her cooperating teacher accords to the evaluation of the student teaching experience.

> I don't feel very much support from my cooperating teacher. It feels more like he's there to evaluate me, not to help me learn as a student teacher and if I learn it's the hard way. Sometimes I'll say "what do you think of that?" He always says, "it's up to you, you're the teacher."

Emotions did erupt between Judy and her cooperating teacher at the end of the four week placement. Judy is upset about the evaluation she has received from the cooperating teacher. She writes in her weekly journal:

> I think he should give more help and suggestions to student teachers. At the beginning of the round when I would ask for suggestions and advice, he would always say it's up to you to decide. He never gave me any advice until the last week. After three weeks without saying a word, I find it extremely difficult to accept his comments at the very end. For sure, I've made some mistakes but I consider myself to be a student teacher. I'm far from being perfect. Evidently my cooperating teacher doesn't think this way.

Classroom Management

A third area of major concern for the participants related to classroom management. As the students began to act out the role of teacher, they accorded a high degree of importance to how they would manage the class so as to be able to transmit the content they had prepared. They perceived disruptive behavior as an obstacle to effective teaching and as jeopardy to their identity as teacher. It was important to have control of the class. Michael comments: "Je voudrais justement enlever le problème de discipline pour qu'il y ait plus d'apprentissage qui se fasse. Je pense que quand ce probleme est éliminé, tu as plus de chance d'avoir de l'apprentissage." (Michael)

Diciplinary problems were a source of frustration and anxiety. Judy compares the problem of managing the children to a game where you have to get all the marbles in:

> There's always one that pops out and this class is like that. You'll never get them all sitting down at once because one is going to get up.

Feelings of frustration and anger that were experienced by the participants because of discipline problems are exemplified in the following statements:

> The science lab was a total disaster. I have a really hard time disciplining the kids. One little girl is very active and always trying to get out of work. I tried to put her in line a few times and then she turned around and yelled at me. I really find that hard to take from a

> kid so it upset me quite a bit. (Judy)
>
> La seule chose que je trouve difficile , c'est quand il faut que je commence à faire de la discipline. (John)
>
> Sometimes I do my utmost not to show frustration. I try to remain calm. I do this because I feel that it is the only thing to do. (Denise)

The participants' fears and worries of management problems pervaded the student teaching experience. "Le fait c'est de penser que jour après jour c'est discipline, discipline!" (John)

Insecure in their role as teacher, the participants were caught in the bind of wanting to remain on friendly terms with the students and the need to establish their teaching identity by maintaining firm control in the classroom.

> If you come on too strong you'll lose the friendliness of the kids and the relationship that you've established with them. (Judy)
>
> I feel that I have to lay down the law more with those kids and those are just the ones that sort of really like me. (Judy)
>
> When you have to remind them thirty times over the period of half an hour to settle down, I just cannot deal with that. Maybe I should be more militant but I just can't do that. I just don't like doing that. (Judy)

In her second week of phase III, Judy writes in her diary:

> What I have learned about teaching -- don't be too friendly, the kids will take advantage of you. I have to be more stern with the kids, and give out discipline. As it is now, they get away with too much and then I lose control of the class.

The participants were often unsure of how to deal with behavior they considered to be disruptive. Not being able to control the class undermined their confidence in their abilities to adopt the role of teacher.

> Everything accumulates and I just don't like it. I can't even think anymore. I can' think because there is too much noise. I can't think because I try to get their attention and they don't listen and then finally I scream and everything ....
> (Judy)

The criterion for judging whether a class went well or not was dependent on the participants' perceptions of student behavior in the classroom. A good class as perceived by the participants was one in which you did not have to discipline the students. "Je pense que ce qui est plaisant c'est quand une classe fonctionne sans étre toujours obligé de leur dire continuellement, écoutez." (Michael) A difficult class set the tone for the rest of the day.

> Ce que je trouve malheureux, c'est que dans bien des cas, à la fin de ma journée, ce que je vais me rappeler ce ne sera pas les trois ou quatre bonnes classes que j'ai eu mais ça va être la

> mauvaise classe. Il s'agit que tu aies une mauvaise classe puis on dirait que toute ta journée est gachée. (John)
>
> Les fois où tu as vraiment l'impression que tu n'as pas le contrôle de la classe ou ils s'en foutent et puis quoi que tu fasses ça ne change rien, bien vraiment ces moments là ce n'est pas de très bons moments. (John)

Learning the Rules

The practicum was a time of discovery, of uncovering structures which defined the web of relationships and interpretations between teacher and student, between teacher and administrators, between teacher and colleagues. The relationship between these members is essentially "a reality-sharing, world-building enterprise" (Esland, 1971:72). There are shared understandings of rules which govern the perception, beliefs, expectations and activities which occur in the everyday world of the school. The term "rules" refers to the "procedures," "methods," "norms," "accounts," or "explanations" which individuals construct and employ for their practical purposes." (Werner and Rothe, 1979:42). Students and teachers follow different rules in the classroom than they do in other situations. The process of becoming a teacher as experienced in the practicum involved learning the ground rules so as to interpret the patterns of behavior, to know the expectations of the other and to define the role that one is to play in various situations. Many of the rules that the participants learned were through the process of trial and error. There was generally no formal acknowledgement or presentation of these rules by the school staff. Rather the rules were tacitly understood and based on a taken-for-granted acceptance by the members involved. The uncovering of these rules and their acceptance by the participants insured membership in the teaching community.

Create a Distance

One of the rules learned by the participants in the practicum related to the need to create a distance between themselves as teacher and the students. In phase I, the student teachers would often refer to the need to get down to the students level, to abolish the traditional image of "teacher." With increased time spent in the classroom in phases II and III, the participants began to speak of the necessity of creating a distance. In describing how he has changed as a result of the practicum experience, Michael makes the following comment:

> Le changement le plus radical que je peux voir c'est qu'au début je me disais que c'était

> important d'être très près de l'élève. Le plus que j'avance, je m'aperçois que c'est important mais qu'il faut quand même garder notre structure de professeur, le cadre de professeur et puis il ne faut pas que l'élève réussisse à passer à travers ça pour devenir plus proche de toi. Tu peux être très amical à l'intérieur de la classe et tout ça mais il faut quand même garder des restrictions.
>
> Faut qu'il y ait une distance et puis il faut qu'elle se fasse garder cette distance-là.

A mechanism that helps create distance is addressing the teacher by his/her surname or Miss, Mr./Mrs. rather than on a first name basis. Identifying the teacher in this way helps define the respective roles of the teacher and the students.

> Je pense que ça peut faire une différence de se faire appeler Monsieur ou Madame plutot que "Heh Michael." Ça établit une certaine distance que le jeune se doit de respecter et ça crée une certaine attente de comportement. (Michael)

The concept of "create a distance" is intertwined with the concept of maintaining order in the classroom and the concept of getting respect. The role of the teacher becomes defined in terms of these concepts. The following comments made by the participants illustrate this well:

> Quand tu es professeur tu dois établir une certaine distance pour pouvoir maintenir l'ordre dans la classe. (Michael)
>
> Si les jeunes s'aperçoivent qu'ils peuvent jouer avec le professeur et puis le ridiculiser, ça

> peut influencer des problèmes de discipline et de contrôle à l'intérieur de la salle de classe. Si l'élève peut se permettre de répliquer, ça ne peut pas marcher. Alors, il y a une certaine distance qui doit s'établir. (Michael)

Be Firm but Friendly

Related to the rule "create a distance" was the rule of "be firm but friendly." The participants' concerns for maintaining discipline in the classroom necessitated the uncovering of "methods" or of "procedures" that could be employed practically in the classroom to insure "good class control." The following excerpts from Judy's weekly journals illustrate well the uncovering of this rule and her subsequent acceptance of the rule as a guide for future behavior.

> I feel at times that I would be better off playing a role because the kids definitely take advantage of someone who tries to be friendly with them. I try to come down to their level too much and then they try to get away with everything.
>
> What I have learned about teaching this week -- don't be too friendly -- the kids will take advantage of you.
>
> Round one, week 2
>
> I tried to be more firm with all my classes -- better late than never! So, when several

> students acted up in class, the class would undergo the consequences. I would have them do some sort of work instead of an activity, or in the case of Physical Education we just sat on the benches instead of an activity.
>
> Round one, week 4

> This time around, I really am trying to be "firm but friendly" and not lose control of the class. By that, I mean not have students milling around me asking questions, trying to be clear and organized in my explanations, trying to "discipline" students quietly (not having to yell - thinking of the ways to handle certain situations before they happen).
>
> Round two, week 1

At the conclusion of the phase III student teaching experience, the participants all affirmed the need for a teacher to establish firm guidelines and to set limits within which students are to work.

> I find more and more in teaching that it's the little things that make a big difference, e.g. when you tell them what they have for homework, how to complete the assignment. I'm learning how explicit you have to be in giving directions. (Judy)

> Ce que je réalise c'est qu' après que tu as établi certains cadres tu peux jouer à l'intérieur de ce cadre là, mais que définitivement il faut que tu prennes des mesures pour atteindre ces cadres là. (John)

> Next year, I'm going to be very firm but friendly at the beginning of the year. I'm going to lay out my expectations, establish clear guidelines. The kids will know the rules and they will know what the consequences of not following the rules are. You need this right from day one. You can't be wishy-washy. (Denise)

Don't Make Waves

A rule not explicitly stated by any of the actors but nontheless very real to the student teachers can be referred to as "don't make waves." There were subtle pressures put on the participants to conform to an established pattern. Cooperating teachers, though generally allowing the participants the freedom to organize and plan their lessons independently, were reluctant to accept modifications which would have resulted in a complete make-over of existing classroom organization and activities. Students having become accustomed to a routine way of doing things were reluctant to accept any departure suggested by the student teacher. Faced with these pressures the student teachers felt powerless to effect any changes. The unspoken rule of behavior became "don't make waves." "Je me sens impuissant à changer des choses, à changer des comportements qui sont là depuis six mois."

> As a student teacher you pick up or you continue the role of your previous teacher. You don't change, you don't make too many waves. (Denise)

> Il faut que tu prennes tout ce qu'on te dit de faire et puis que tu ne dises pas un mot. (John)

John speaks of student reactions to his attempt to make changes in the classroom organization:

> J'arrive dans une classe ou les élèves me disent à tous les jours " n'essayer pas de rien changer Monsieur ça fait depuis le mois de septembre que c'est de même."
>
> Je disais aux élèves qu'on avait certaines choses à voir avant l'examen et puis que s'ils voulaient réussir l'examen il fallait bien écouter afin de tout couvrir la matière. Il y a un élève qui m'a répondu "bien Monsieur, ça fait depuis le mois de septembre que l'examen est tout le temps là à chaque fin d'unité, ça fait depuis le mois de septembre qu'on fait les fous en classe, ça fait depuis le mois de septembre qu'on passe, puis on va continuer à passer."

Don't Take Things Personally.

There appears to be an acceptance on the part of both the teacher and the students to distinguish between the person of teacher and the role of teacher. Teachers expect students to react negatively at times to activities related to their role as teacher. It becomes painful however to accept barbs or criticisms aimed at person as teacher. At times, demarcation between what constitutes part of the role and what constitutes part of the person is not clearly defined. This is an area which is jointly constructed by the teacher and students as they create a definition of their life together in the classroom. The student teacher learns to interpret the behavior of the pupils in the class in terms of making this distinction between the role of the teacher and the person as teacher. It becomes easier to ward off criticism, to accept the hurt if one can say "they don't mean it personally." As Michael says, when you take student comments too personally that's when you get mad and hurt: "Ça fait mal et puis quand tu prends ça trop personnel c'est là que tu te choques."

The participants came to interpret pupil behavior within this frame of reference.

> Ce que j'ai compris le plus à la phase II, c'est que ce n'est pas à toi personnellement à qui ils vont lancer une roche ou bien à qui il vont dire "ah, c'est plate!" C'est à ton rôle. (Michael)
>
> Le rôle du professeur doit être pris en tant que rôle et non en tant que personne. C'est-à-dire s'il arrive quelque chose en salle de classe, par exemple si les élèves ridiculisent le professeur, ce n'est pas toi personnellement qu'ils ridiculisent mais c'est le statut dans lequel tu es qui est ridiculisé. (Michael)
>
> Je vais essayer de surmonter toutes les flèches qui me sont lancées personnellement parce que je ne pense pas que ce sont des flèches personnelles mais que ce sont des flèches aux cadres de la profession. Bon, un exemple si un étudiant dit "Ah, that's boring", c'est pas tellement visé personnellement à Michael mais au système, à la matière, au rôle du professeur. (Michael)
>
> Alors je réalise que les élèves s'ils font les fous dans la classe ce n'est peut-être pas parce qu'ils ne t'aiment pas la face. Il ne faut pas que je prenne ça personnellement. Il me semble que ce n'est pas une attaque à ma personnalité. (John)
>
> Ce qu'ils font ce n'est pas contre moi mais c'est

> beaucoup plus contre l'école.
> (John)

This rationalization is important to the survival of the student teacher.

Work Within Limits

One of the most difficult realizations that the participants came to as a result of the practicum was the extent to which the work of the teacher is subject to constraints. Prior to actual teaching, the participants had anticipated kinds of relationships they would establish with their students, ways of rendering their classes interesting and means of providing individual help and attention to the students. The practicum was a jolting experience in that the participants had to learn to interpret the reality of the classroom teacher within the context of many constraints. A common rule was you have to "learn to work within limits."

> The student teacher learns in the socialization process that she is not essentially a free agent. She can act only within the limits of the prescribed sphere of operation. She can make choices, within limits, she can be autonomous within the amount of autonomy she is allowed to have. Socialization during student teaching may be likened to "learning to cook in your

mother-in-law's kitchen" (Bernstein, 1978:21).

After having spent some time in the school as student teacher, the following comments were made by the participants.

> I just think of all the different aspects there are in teaching. There's not only the students (you have 30 of them). There's also the administration that you have to think about. Maybe your philosophy doesn't go along with the administration's philosophy so you have to think about getting around that. You have to think about the parents of the students. You have to think about your own life apart from school. (Judy)

> Ça m'a ouvert les yeux. On voit tout ce que le professeur est imposé, comme par exemple les guides pédagogiques, un curriculum, tellement de choses à suivre. (Michael)

Working with available resources was at times a problem.

> We can't really have them do research projects in science because they don't have enough material in the library for the class. (Denise)

> Ce n'est pas nécessairement ce que moi je voudrais faire, de prendre le livre puis de suivre de A à Z mais à cause de circonstances c'est un peu ce qui se produit. (John)

> You can't reserve tape recorders. You've got to order films ages ahead of time. I mean you never get them for the day you want them anyway but you live through that. It's sort of part of being a teacher and there's no problem. Everybody has to do it too, so it's alright. (Denise)

There is also the realization that as teacher it is difficult to meet all the needs of the students. Judy speaks of the frustration she feels when trying to reconcile individual learning difficulties with the need to keep up the pace with the rest of the class.

> Annie is so far behind that she'll come up and ask you questions that every single other person in the whole class knows. You can't stop for five minutes in the class to explain something to her because there's other things going on in the class. You've got to think of the 20 other students in the class and not just Annie.

Time was a recurring theme in the account given by the participants of their practicum experiences. Schools are organized by time--roll call time, subject matter time, supervision time, lunch time, bus time, home room time, curriculum unit time, and report card time. Clock time becomes very important. Students are generally penalized for being late for classes, and teachers must watch the time so as not to exceed their alloted 40 minutes of instruction designated for that particular time slot. At one point, Judy writes in her journal:

> I misjudged the bell by 12 whole minutes. There are four bells between 1:00 - 1:12 . For some reason, I thought French started at 1:00, so I thought "It finishes at 1:32"; well not so. So, I hurried the lesson and finished at 1:32. A student kindly informed me that there was still 12 minutes left -- Gak!!

Time directs student and teacher activity in terms of when one can enter or leave the school building. Lunch must be eaten within 20 minutes after which time the students must clear the school to go outside. When the school day is completed, students must leave the school punctually so as to meet bus time.

The importance of time in the organization of a school can be illustrated by the following incident. As part of the physical education activities, Judy had taken her students for a kayak outing in a large indoor swimming pool. A school bus was waiting to return the students to school. Not making the bus on time was a critical incident not anticipated by Judy.

> In the dressing rooms, of course girls take longer and I tried my hardest to speed them up. When I came out, the cooperating teacher says "Judy you're 10 minutes late. The bus isn't here, it's probably left already, the kids have to be back at school to pick up the bus to go home!" There was nothing that said the kids had fun or that was good for the kids or anything like that.

In addition to adjusting to the demands of clock time in a school setting, the element of time was significant for the participants as they constructed meanings about the tasks and responsibilities of teaching. Time was generally viewed as a constraint which affected student teacher performance. Time was all important in lesson planning and organization.

> When you're beginning there's always the time-consuming factor concerning planning and getting to know your subject matter. (Denise)
>
> I had to show the film today even though I would have preferred showing it the next day. I didn't have a chance to tie things together. I had to show the film because the film had to go back. (Denise)
>
> Tu prépares des plans de leçons, puis quand tu n'es pas habitué, tu n'as aucune idée du temps que ça peut prendre. (Michael)
>
> C'est le facteur temps qui m'empêchait. (Michael)
>
> A cause du temps, ça ne vaut pas la peine de m'organiser. Il faut que tu te prennes à l'avance. Si je voulais faire venir des films ou quoi que ce soit, ça prend deux semaines alors ça ne vaut pas la peine. (John)

Time was identified as the major element hindering the student teacher's ability to make significant changes.

> It takes a lot of time sometimes to change an attitude. (Denise)
>
> Les élèves, je ne les vois pratiquement pas. C'est-à-dire je ne les vois que quelque fois alors je ne peux pas moi-même vraiment effectuer un changement.
> (John)

Time was a limiting factor in allowing the participants to construct a personal classroom climate.

> Disons que neuf semaines, ce n'est pas assez pour établir une atmosphère, un climat de classe.

(Michael)

Time was an important element affecting the pacing of a lesson. The participants had to continually adjust their lesson plans depending on the time it took, to get through the activities. For a beginning teacher, this was often a difficult task.

> Je n'avais pas calculé ce temps là dans mon plan de leçon. Je me suis rendu compte que tu fais des plans de leçons puis tout ça, mais bien souvent il faut que tu ajustes, que tu en enlèves, il faut que t'en mettre ici puis là. (Michael)

Students who did not work at the same speed as the majority were difficult challenges.

> The timing in class is important. People who work quicker or slower sort of put your schedule off kilter. (Denise)

The student teachers often felt overwhelmed by the lack of time to attend to all the students' needs in the class. Judy speaks of her frustrations in not being able to find the necessary time to spend with a student who has been absent.

> I am so hooked up with everything and what's going on with everyone else that I'm always going -- "10 minutes Manon, peux-tu me voir dans 10 minutes?" Well, I try to get the time but she's missed the math exam and she missed all the work that we did and I've got to do special things for

> her and there always seem to be so many activities. (Judy)

The time element was of particular concern in the student teaching setting.

> Being a student teacher and being in school just for a matter of four weeks can become somewhat of a pressure. You don't know if you're going to finish or what your cooperating teacher is going to think if you don't finish. I know that it has definitely affected me. I had something planned that I wanted to do and I wanted to finish it and I was always trying to push it a little harder-get that goal. It definitely affects you. Whereas if you had your own class, you could say well, when this is over we'll continue from where we left off and take as much time as needed. (Denise)

Summary

The participants' views on the practicum, the concerns they expressed and the rules they discovered were presented in this chapter. The rules of behavior described were shared by the participants and were used to define and to interpret the practicum situation within which they were placed. These rules became part of the patterns of thought and action which the participants developed in response to the practicum situation. These patterns or perspectives are described in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

PERSPECTIVES DEVELOPED AND MODIFIED THROUGH THE PRACTICUM

Introduction

Though student teachers enter the practicum with a set of beliefs and attitudes about teaching, these may change in the practicum experience. Learning the role of teacher is different than having experienced schooling. For each of the participants in this study, the practicum offered different opportunities for learning the role of teacher. There were, however, similarities or commonalities in the ways that the participants reacted to the student teaching situation. Perspectives were developed and modified as the participants moved through the practicum.

The term "perspective" as used in this study is defined by Becker et al.

> to refer to a coordinated set of ideas and actions a person uses in dealing with some problematic situation, to refer to a person's ordinary way of thinking and feeling about and acting in such a situation (Becker et al., 1961:34).

In Making the Grade, Becker et al. divide perspectives into several components: (1) a definition of the situation, (2) a disposition to act as dictated by the situation, and (3) a criterion of judgment based on the quality of available institutional rewards. Important features in the students' perspectives on undergraduate life at the University of Kansas included:

> a statement of goals one can reasonably strive for in the situation; a description of the organizations within which action occurs and the demands they make on participants; the rules both formal and informal by which one's action is constrained; and the rewards and punishments one may look forward to as a consequence of his performance (Becker et al., 1968:29).

In this study, a set of prevailing perspectives common to all four participants emerged from the themes and were labeled by the researcher. Perspectives developed and modified through the practicum related to the development of "self as teacher" and to the patterned way of thinking and acting that characterized the conduct of the participants in the adoption of classroom teacher behavior: "taking the class through the lesson," "finding a happy medium," "taking the path of least resistance," "securing control" and "justifying behavior." A description of each of these perspectives follows.

Self as Teacher

The perspective of "self as teacher" has been described by various researchers (Bernstein, 1978; Eddy, 1969; Fuller and Brown 1975; Hawke, 1980; Iannaccone, 1963; Lortie, 1975;). This perspective has often been described in terms of the rites of passage as presented in the work of Van Gennep (1960). Utilizing Van Gennep's conceptual framework, a change in status from the role of student to the role of teacher with its accompanying rituals and feelings may be considered as "un rite de passage." The student teaching experience can be viewed as the passage which helps move the individual from the status of student to teacher. As they progres through their practicum experience, the participants refer to experiences which allow them to "feel like a teacher." The perspective of self as teacher entails two separate but complementary processes: (1) seeing yourself see as teacher, and (2) establishing a teaching identity. A description of each of these processes follows.

"Seeing Yourself See"

The expression "seeing yourself see" refers to the process by which the subject can stand back and become the object of his own analysis. An individual may engage in interaction with himself. He may praise, blame, or encourage himself. In symbolic interaction theory, the self is formed through the "definitions" made by others. Meltzer (1967) describes the theory put forward by Mead (1934) in which the individual comes to view himself:

> It is only by taking the role of others that the individual can come to see himself as an object. The standpoint of others provides a platform for getting outside oneself and thus viewing oneself. The development of the self is concurrent with the development of the ability to take roles (Meltzer, 1967:10).

In this study the participants' abilities to stand back and analyze their actions as teacher increased as they progressively began to feel more comfortable in their role of teacher. By "taking the role of the other," in this case of the teacher, the participants called out responses in the students, the cooperating teacher, the faculty consultant and their peers. These responses allowed the participants to see themselves as others saw them. In the terminology of symbolic interaction theory, the participants were able to project themselves into the position of the other and imagine how they felt. They were able to anticipate probable reaction of others to their behavior. For symbolic interactionists, an internal dialogue is present by which one addresses oneself from the standpoint of the other.

> The mind is social in function in the sense that the individual continually indicates to himself in the role of others and controls his activity with reference to the definitions provided by others. In order to carry on though, he must have some standpoint from which to converse with himself. He gets this standpoint by importing into himself the role of others (Meltzer,1967:15).

The capacity of "seeing oneself see" developed in a manner parallel to the construction of a teaching identity. In the initial stages of forming a teaching identity, the participants were able to define themselves as teachers only as it related to their personal concerns of adequacy and survival. At a later stage when they had had more experience taking on the role of teacher, they were able to see themselves from the standpoint of the other and thus their concerns shifted from an emphasis on "me" to an emphasis on "they," the students. Through interaction in the classroom setting, the participants began to conduct themselves in a manner consistent with the intentions and expectations that are defined as part of the composite role of teacher. The interpretation of the role of teacher and the taking on of a teaching identity by the participants in this study is described in the following section.

Establishing a Teaching Identity

Establishing a teaching identity was not fixed from day one in the school. Rather it can be likened to a slow-developing progressive relationship in which "teaching" was disclosed to the participants and the participants in turn adopted the role of teacher. Foote defines identification as

> appropriation of and commitment to a particular identity or series of identities. As a process, it proceeds by naming ; its products are ever-evolving self-conceptions-with the emphasis on the con -that is, upon ratification by significant others (Foote, 1967:347).

In the process of becoming a teacher, student teachers increasingly appropriate behaviors that they perceive as belonging to the "teacher identity" and evolve a conception of self as teacher which they believe will be ratified by the reference group. Though the participants in this study were often not able to state explicitly what becoming a teacher meant, they had an implicit understanding of what being a teacher entailed. They would continually assess themselves according to a set of behaviors which they perceived and identified as representative of the teacher identity. Feelings of inadequacy were often expressed by the student teacher in the process of rating oneself against these "norms." For the most part, however, they quickly learned to adopt the role appropriate to the teaching identity.

The participants were quite aware that in projecting a teacher image they were at times adopting a role. "C'est un rôle tu sais que je joue enfin de compte. Comme professeur on est demandé de faire semblant" (Michael). In order to play the role well, an understanding of the character, the setting, and the mood is necessary. The awareness of self as teacher and the identification with the role of teacher took on different meanings as the participants gained experience in the classroom and with the accrued understanding of their part as principal actor.

The establishing of a teaching identity followed a series of stages, each stage characterized by a set of particular concerns. These stages have been well documented by Bernstein (1978), Fuller and Brown (1975), Iannaccone (1963) and others. Anticipating what would actually occur in student teaching aroused concerns revolving around the personal self of the participants. These feelings were described in Chapter IV. Concerns dealing with the personal self shifted to concerns dealing with the professional self with increased teaching experience. At this point, the participants were engaged in the process of developing a professional self-image. They were concerned with being viewed as a teacher and commanding the respect and attention that accompanied the role. Based on the definition of the situation of the practicum, a coordinated set of ideas and actions emerged, guiding the participants in the establishing of their teaching identity.

It was important to be seen as a teacher. In reacting to a question asked by the researcher at the completion of phase II as to how she felt students perceived her, Judy states:

> I think they see you more just as a person than...a teacher. Especially since I'm young and everything. They look at me more as just a person up there just talking to them.
>
> They think I'm a nice person . A lot of them will come up and ask me questions.

After observing a class of students considered to be a difficult group and whom he would be teaching in a few days, John worries about being perceived as a real teacher by them.

> C'est la pire "gang" de l'école. Je me demande vraiment comment ils vont réagir au fait que je vais être en avant. Est-ce qu'ils vont faire par exprès de faire les fous devant le fait que je ne suis pas le vrai professeur. Ils ne sont pas tellement plus jeunes que moi et puis plusieurs me dépassent d'un pied.

Becoming a teacher meant being able to stand up in front of a class and be scrutinized by students. Adopting the role of one who stands in front of the class was generally a frightening experience in the initial encounters that the student teachers had with each new class. They were very concerned about how the students would think about them. Judy states:

> When I get up there in front of the class, I lose my concentration. It seems like the action and just the attention on me from the students makes me a bit nervous so I can't think. I have trouble thinking and acting at the same time.

John worries about working out math problems on the board and making an error in full view of the students.

> Au début, ça m'énervait parce que je me disais "Mon Dieu," qu'est-ce qui arrive si je fais une erreur?

Denise is concerned that she won't meet the students' expectations of a teacher.

> Students expect you to be competent and if you're not they're going to let you know or they're going to let everyone else know. It's the same for everyone. You want a good teacher, somebody who knows their stuff.

Michael describes the sentiments of a teacher meeting his class for the first time.

> Il va être nerveux un petit peu pour savoir, justement s'il va faire partie de la classe, s'il est accepté par les étudiants. Tu sais, c'est important.

Acting like a teacher, especially in the initial stages of student teaching, is related to knowledge of subject matter and communication of subject matter. Being a teacher means that you are an expert in the subject area you are teaching. Student teachers feel very inadequate in a situation where they do not feel thoroughly confident in their knowledge of subject matter and ability to communicate subject matter. Denise states: "I feel that I don't know the subject matter enough to feel at ease." Fuller (1971) identifies subject matter adequacy as an initial stage of concern for student teachers. As she views a videotape of a science class she has just taught, Judy speaks of her feelings of inadequacy regarding knowledge of subject matter and the expectations that as a teacher she should be an expert:

> I just really started to feel like "Oh, Oh, this isn't clear or whatever." I was thinking "Oh, I've forgotten something and things aren't going so well so I'll go back and check my notes." Once I got back there, I thought geez I shouldn't have done that. Because I'm conscious of the students maybe thinking, she had to go back to her notes because she didn't know what she was talking about.
>
> Like I don't want them to think that I don't know anything.

> In that science experiment, I wouldn't have minded knowing the two equations and explaining actually what was happening. That bothers me. Like I would have liked to have known the subject material better.

Reflecting on his feelings on teaching a class for the first time, John says:

> J'avais peur de prendre la classe. J'avais peur au fait que la matière ne m'était pas tellement familière.

The selction and transmission of subject matter was an important concern throughout the student teaching experience. Towards the end of her first student teaching round in phase III, Denise makes the following comment:

> I think that's part of the reason why it took me so long to make lesson plans because I was so worried that I would miss something, like, to teach one grammar concept I would consult three different grammar books to make sure I had every little thing covered.

Knowing well one's subject matter contributed to a sense of ease and of confidence in the classroom.

> When I don't know the subject matter well, it takes me longer to find the information or to think. It's the whole time factor and the factor of being at ease. (Denise)

Knowing well one's subject matter was seen as a means of reducing possible discipline problems and of freeing the teacher to attend to problems should they arise.

Michael readily admits that he has played a role in projecting an image of expertise in a classroom discussion on dinosaurs. As teacher, it was important for him to have others think that he knew. Viewing a replay of a class he has just taught, Michael makes the following comment:

> Je semble être un professeur intéressé au dinosaure et qui s'y connait. Brontosaure, dinosaure puis tout ça, je l'ai appris il y a deux soirs. J'ai l'air de connaître tout ça. Je me regarde là, je suis un acteur total.

There was a sentiment on the part of the participants that a teacher should be busy at all times directing student activity. They were often uncomfortable in their role as teacher when they were not actively directing pupil activity, that is when students were doing seat work.

> Je me demande toujours quand on a un temps mort comme ça si ça va mon affaire? Est-ce qu'ils apprennent quelque chose? (Michael)

Establishing a teacher identity was precarious. The participants perceived that they were losing their teacher identity if the cooperating teacher was present in class. Judy speaks of her feelings one day when a substitute teacher was in class and when that individual helped her to circulate in the classroom assisting students conduct science experiments:

> I didn't mind at all and I even think he helped. He wasn't interfering. It took away less from me than if the cooperating teacher did it because we're both new and strange. But if the cooperating teacher interferes than the students are thinking, this girl doesn't know.

John feels his teacher identity weakened by the cooperating teacher's interventions to maintain discipline in the classroom.

> Lorsque je donne mon cours, si un élève se retourne et dit un petit secret à l'amie, n'importe quoi, ça pourrait être une question posée par rapport à la matière que j'enseigne ou un problème, il se tourne puis il dit "tais-toi, la prochaine fois c'est dehors"! J'ai l'air fou moi, le beau nonod en avant. J'ai l'air d'un gars qui, en fin de compte, n'a aucun mot là-dedans. C'est lui le "boss."

Closely linked with establishing a teaching identity was the establishment of control in the classroom. For Michael, adopting the role of teacher involved directing and controlling the events in a class: "C'est moi qui va diriger la classe, controler les évènements." (Michael) Credibility as a teacher was perceived by the participants as being dependent on one's ability to handle the students. The importance of not being viewed as "too soft" by the students is described:

> Au début de l'année le professeur donne une image de lui-même. Si le professeur donne une image qui est un peu molle, bien, les étudiants peuvent

> facilement prendre avantage de ça. (Michael)
>
> Si le professeur, dès le premier cours arrête et leur dit "Moi, j'accepte pas ça, puis mettez vous à vos places," les élèves vont savoir à quoi s'attendre. Ils vont le respecter dans le sens que ce n'est pas un "mou." (Michael)
>
> I just think that students lose respect for someone who can't control a class. (Judy)

Establishing control involved creating a distance, setting guidelines, disciplining the students. For Judy this role was particularly difficult to accept.

> But the thing that upsets me is the disciplining. I don't do it that well and even if I did learn how to do it well would I still be happy? If I did, and I could do it and let's say I could be a great teacher but does that mean that I'd be happy sitting there getting mad at kids?
>
> I try not to play a role, I try to be myself and that's obviously the wrong thing to do. Because all students do is turn against me and I can't handle that. I don't want to be hypocritical like that. I don't want to sit down and get mad at them and then turn around and act normally.

Though Denise acknowledges that some measure of control is necessary if one is to teach, she does not consider disciplining the students as teaching. The following comments were made in week two of round two in phase III.

> Q. Are you saying that when you're insisting or threatening, you're playing a role?
>
> Yeah, right. I don't think that that's what it's

> all about. (Denise)
>
> Q. You don't define this as teaching?
>
> No. (Denise)
>
> Q. What is it?
>
> I don't know. Babysitting. Being the policeman. I don't know. It's not teaching at all. (Denise)
>
> Q. What would you describe as an experience you had that was a teaching exprience as you would define it?
>
> Where students are interested ... and also where you can talk, where you can talk to them in a relaxed manner and if there happens to be a comment that's funny or something, fine--laugh about it and get back to the subject matter. That's what I like--a place where you can act like a human being and not like a robot or a prison guard.

Feeling like a teacher involved a sense of proprietorship which was attained only when the participants felt that they were autonomous and responsible for what occurred in the classroom. This feeling occurred in phase III when the participants took over most classroom teaching duties. They recognized, however, that a sense of proprietorship included, in addition to full responsibility for the preparing and giving of lessons, the establishing of a relationship between teacher and students in which each participated jointly in the construction of the social world of the classroom. The constraints of student teaching did not allow for the construction of a personal classroom reality by the participants. They nonetheless perceived the process of establishing a relationship with students as vital to the definition of a teacher. At times, the participants expressed resentment that they were unable to establish their own class climate and had to act within the social boundaries of the classroom as defined by someone else.

> Je m'aperçois que je commence à avoir un climat de classe. Mais c'est quand même artificiel parce que ce n'est pas mes étudiants. (Michael)

Feeling good about teaching was usually related to interactions that the participants had had with students. Little things like students saying "hello" in the hallways, asking questions in class, sharing their experiences were of importance to the participants.

> When that fellow came up and asked me about the question that I asked at the beginning of the class, it made me feel good to know that he was curious enough to ask about it again. (Judy)
>
> Je me souviens de moi aussi à cet âge là. Si j'avais quelque chose à dire au professeur, il ne fallait pas que je le manque. Ça doit être un peu comme ça pour les étudiants. S'ils ont quelque chose à me dire, ils viennent voir le professeur. C'est quelque chose! (Michael)
>
> Students saying hello ... or a student making an effort to speak French to me out of the classroom, that really makes me feel good. I think, wow, they're really thinking about it. Sometimes, there will be other teachers passing by, observing my work or something and they'll

> say "Oh gee, you're well organized or you're working again!" Things like that make me feel good. It's just little comments but at least you know someone is recognizing what you're doing. (Denise)

Judy writes in her journal toward the end of round one, phase III:

> Some things that seem quite insignificant really did make my day. One day, I asked if any one had watched the final episode of "MASH" and we talked about it a bit. The next day, one of the students who had seemed really enthusiastic about the program brought me a "MASH QUIZ." Another experience that lifted my spirits was the day that students came around to my desk to tell me they liked my dress (isn't that crazy!).

Feeling good about teaching depends to a great extent on student reaction to the lesson one has taught. When the participants felt that the students had learned and that they had "reached" the students, the lesson was deemed successful.

> There is a student who usually gives poor work and who generallly fools around in class. However, in one class he participated actively. I could see an honest interest. This made me feel good. I could see progress. (Denise)

At a later date, she reports in an interview with the researcher.

> I find that my evaluators can say whatever they want. I feel good. But when the students come across that's when it really--that's what counts

> Q. --you say when they come across ...
>
> When they talk to you or when they come up and say, "We like to do this or that was very good" or - when they trust you. (Denise)

As evidenced from the previous discussion, a major perspective developed in the practicum was the evolvement of the concept of self as teacher. By allowing the participants' entry into the world of the classroom teacher, the practicum was a time of learning to identify and meet expectations which came from self, cooperating teachers, faculty consultants and the students. In adopting classroom teacher behavior, whether it be in the choice of teaching method used, classroom management approach or ways of relating with the students, the participants adopted patterns for responding as a student teacher based on the interpretations they made of the situation. A description of five perspectives that emerged as the participants adopted classroom teacher behavior in the student teaching context is presented.

Taking the Class Through the Lesson

In the process of becoming a teacher, the participants develop an orientation to teaching that can be typified by the expression "taking the class through the lesson" (Iannaccone, 1963). Throughout the practicum experience the participants defined teaching in terms of this perspective. Teaching was viewed in terms of selecting the content, the materials and the activities with which students were to be involved within an established time frame. These three elements were at the basis of the tasks that made up a lesson. This is consistent with research in teacher education which indicates that the planning carried out by teachers is focused on creating tasks and that much of interactive teaching is focused on the implementation of these tasks. Shavelson and Stern (1981:462-464) in their review of the research on teacher thought, judgment, and decisions speak of a task once formulated as acting like a plan, a mental image or script which the teacher carries out in the classroom. These images or scripts become routinized to the extent that once begun they typically are carried out. The following comment made by Denise as she relates how she plans her lessons illustrates the importance of routine during interactive teaching.

> I think I sort of follow my patterns all the time, more or less. Especially if you're successful in the beginning with a certain pattern. You might try a little variety but I don't think you'll ever go very far from your basic pattern.

Much of the research on teacher thought and decision making indicates that "the teacher's primary concern is maintaining the activity flow" (Shavelson and Stern, 1981:462). Congruent with these findings, the participants are very concerned about completing a lesson/unit within the timelines they establish.

> I want to finish that unit and as you can see everything you do takes twice as much time as it really should because of the fact that everybody has to put their little comment in, everytime they change activity. (Denise)

There is almost an obsession about getting behind. Judy is reluctant to take the needed time to review mathematical concepts that are at the basis of the unit she is teaching on fractions because the students would not be at a comparable point in the curriculum with students in other schools.

> This year is really the year they start working with fractions. We would have had to start like at the beginning of this year or I'd have to take a lot of time right now. A block of time and they're really quite behind. Like way behind other schools.

Student interventions are often viewed as conflicting with the objectives of completing what has been planned.

> Ça m'embêtais quand les élèves me posaient des questions parce que je pensais à ce que j'avais à leur donner. J'avais beaucoup de choses à dire par rapport au projet de groupe. Alors je voulais aller rapidement, par contre ils avaient des questions. (Michael)

The participants use specific techniques for moving the class through the lesson. Classroom student behavior which seems to impede the flow of the lesson becomes unacceptable. Disciplinary measures are frequently utilized by the student teachers to insure that they can get through the content and activities of the lesson. Learning goals often become redefined for problem students and for students who have been absent for an extensive period of time. Labeling the students helps reduce the conflict of having to deal with difficult situations. Of a student who could not complete a math assignment because she did not understand, Judy makes the following comments and suggests that the student get help at home.

> She is terrible in Math. She is very quiet. She's one of those kids. You come up to her and she is one foot away from me and I can't hear her speak. She does really badly in math. I did revision of everything and she just doesn't get it. And so, obviously she needs some help from somewhere else. Different people can explain things better to some people or some people accept other people's explanations more. That is

> why I asked her, "well, couldn't comeone help you at home?"

Students who have been absent for an extensive period of time are perceived as hindering the progress of the remainder of the class. "Ceux qui ont été absents retardent les autres. Ca fait que la classe n'avance pas." Students who are behind in their work or who need further assistance are asked to come in during the noon hour or after school. In this way, the teacher can proceed with taking the class through the lesson as planned.

Evidence that teachers attend to their mental script or image while teaching is shown in the following excerpt. In reporting his thoughts while watching a replay of a class he has taught, Michael states that in the back of his mind he is thinking of what he still has left to do while engaged in the present activity. There is a preoccupation with getting through the lesson.

> J'avais une inquiètude qui me trottait dans la tête qui me disait "dépêches-toi, fais autres choses." Il fallait que je finisse d'expliquer le film avant de passer à ce que j'avais préparé aujourd'hui. (Michael)

As indicated by the preceding statement, the lesson plan or script acts as a guide to teacher behavior. In large part, the participants judge their teaching to have been successful when they feel they have gotten through the tasks of the lesson as planned.

Finding a Happy Medium

The complex, multidimensional world of the classroom teacher is filled with situations offering a multitude of possibilities. How does one choose the content of a lesson or the way in which the lesson will be presented? How does one deal with a child who disturbs the others or who talks back? How often and when does one communicate with parents? When should a teacher be strict or lenient? These questions are but examples of the intricate and diverse classroom situations in which teachers must make decisions based on a judgment of the situation at hand. There is no one right way of dealing with any of these situations. For student teachers having no prior teaching experience to fall back on, decision-making appeared to be guided by the perspective of "le juste milieu." The perspective of "le juste milieu" refers to the belief that the best way to achieve a balance between two opposing forces or pulls is to strike a mid-point between the two. This belief dictates that the individual choose a middle ground when making educational decisions.

The use of this perspective is particularly well exemplified in the following excerpts from transcribed interviews with Michael. Though Michael does not explicitly describe his actions in terms of this perspective, he frequently refers to the necessity of finding a happy medium, "le juste milieu."

--In reconciling prescribed curriculum content with the level of the students:

> Je pense qu'il faut trouver un juste milieu, entre suivre un guide à la lettre et suivre le niveau des étudiants.

--In reconciling teacher goals and needs with the goals and needs of the students:

> Ce que je voudrais faire, c'est trouver le juste milieu. Je vais faire du mieux que je peux pour arriver à mes buts et puis arriver à connaître l'étudiant tout en lui donnant des connaissances puis en l'aidant à s'enrichir dans la voie qui l'intéresse.

--In reconciling the role of teacher as transmitter of knowledge with that of teacher as guide and friend:

> C'est qu'il s'agit encore de trouver le juste milieu entre le versement de connaissances puis la sociabilité d'un professeur.
>
> Le juste milieu entre être ami avec les étudiants et leur donner des connaissances....

--In reconciling the need to be firm with the need to be flexible:

> Le juste milieu pour ne pas être trop rigide mais tout en sachant me faire respecter en tant que professeur.

Taking the Path of Least Resistance

As the participants passed through the "rite of passage" of student teaching, they developed a perspective for avoiding confrontation or conflict. This perspective can be labeled as "taking the path of least resistance" (Cunningham, 1979). The participants attempted to avoid conflict, especially in their relationships with their cooperating teacher and with students. At the end of phase III, Denise summarizes her student teaching experiences in this way:

> All the cooperating teachers I had were very different and I think I did well with all of them. The reason I did well was because I made it a point to adapt myself to them and their situation. I think you have to do that as a student teacher. If you're not prepared to do that then be prepared to have a tough time. (Denise)
>
> Q. Would you say that student teachers who did not adapt themselves would have a hard time?
>
> Oh yes, definitely! I think that's one of my pluses because I get along with people. I make a point of it. When I have to work with someone, I can do it and I don't find it that much of a

> chore whereas some other people would maybe find it a real burden to adapt themselves to someone's style. But like I say for five weeks, there's a way of working with a person and you've got to find that way and do it. And the student teacher has to--don't expect the cooperating teacher to do it. (Denise)

As a student teacher, it was easier to accede to the way things were than to attempt to change a situation within the limited time they were in the school.

> J'ai l'impression que si je perdais du temps à m'opposer à certaines choses qui se passent à l'heure actuelle ce serait une plus grande perte de temps que de les laisser passer. (John)

The following excerpt is a good illustration of taking the path of least resistance. John had prepared and administered a physics exam. When correcting the exam, he had taken off marks for something which the cooperating teacher had accepted in the past. Students complained both to John and to the cooperating teacher. In relating his discussion with the cooperating teacher on the issue, John says:

> J'ai demandé au professeur: "Qu'est-ce que je fais?" Il a dit: "Fais ce que tu veux mais la situation est délicate. Moi, je n'ai jamais enlevé de points pour ça!" Qu'est-ce que tu veux que je fasse? Je ne suis pas pour me disputer avec les élèves contre le professeur.

Another situation arising from this exam presented itself the next day. Students had been forewarned by John that there would be no excuses for not writing the exam. A student had missed the exam because he had not studied the night before due to his playing in a hockey game; he implored the cooperating teacher to allow him to write the exam the next day. John's bitter comment was: "Qu'est-ce que tu veux que je dise? J'ai été obligé de le laisser écrire l'examen." The student teacher in these situations could have chosen to oppose both the students and the cooperating teacher. The decision made was to acquiesce to the demands of the situation. Though bitter about the experience, he chose the path of least resistance. He was not about to jeopardize his student teaching over such an incident.

There was continual pressure on the student teachers to conform to the way things were generally done. Taking the path of least resistance also meant following in the footsteps of the cooperating teacher in matters of lesson organization and content even though the student teacher felt that it could have been done in a better manner.

> J'ai realisé que je faisais exactement la même chose dans toutes les classes. C'est que je me trouve à suivre le volume. Je prends le volume--tel problème-faite le problème--réponse aux problèmes, avez-vous des questions-oui, non--corrections des problèmes--ensuite on voit la nouvelle section--ils font les problèmes sur la nouvelle section, c'est de même. Mais ce que

> je dis c'est que pour l'instant mon rôle s'en tient à suivre strictement ce que le prof me dit de faire, ce qui est de suivre le volume. (John)

It was important to avoid problems with students.

> It's interesting to see how kids can be so different. I have no problem with these kids. I have their attention. I don't get student attention in the other class. (Judy)

Securing Control

A perspective modified and strengthened during the practicum was in relation to "securing control." As they established their teaching identity, the participants increased their desire for pupil control of the class. Awareness of a need for some form of control had been expressed on many occasions by the participants in interview sessions prior to phase III. In fact, worry about being able to "handle the kids" was a source of concern at some time for most of them. A modification of their perspective of control came about as a result of actual teaching experience. Where previously the student teachers had felt that if they were well organized, respectful, just and courteous toward the students and knowlegeable in their subject field, they would have few disciplinary problems, actual encounters with some classes left them feeling disappointed and at times disillusioned and deceived. The participants quickly came to the realization that the class atmosphere did not depend solely on their preparatory efforts. Many other factors came into play--how the students felt that day, how they themselves felt, what had gone on before, and the influence of the cooperating teacher.

The participants were confronted with expectations to exert control. Much to their surprise, they speak of being pressured by some students to exert greater pupil control so as to minimize disruptive behavior in the class. There is an expectation that it is the teacher's responsibility to do something about it. John speaks of the pressures exerted on him in phase II to take disciplinary action when a group of students complained to the cooperating teacher that they had been unable to hear the morning announcements on the intercom because some students were "clowning" around.

> C'est presque comme si les élèves veulent cette discipline. Ce sont les élèves eux-mêmes qui sont allés parler à l'enseignant coopérant. (John)

Judy has felt similar pressures. After observing a grade 8 class in which her cooperating teacher had had to punish three students because of disruptive behavior, she says:

> Well, it's like the students have a certain perception of teachers and they expect to be disciplined and so they manipulate the professor into being like that. The cooperating teacher really likes those three boys and she didn't want to get mad at them. She doesn't want to but they make her. They need a little action or something. They make her yell. They don't think any less of her for yelling, they just want her to do that.

John feels that the students often react in this way because this is what they have been accustomed to.

> C'est tout ce qu'ils connaissent.
>
> Les élèves ont aucune responsabilité. Ils sont habitués de se faire taper sur la tête, de se faire dire "Tais-toi, fais-ci, fais-ça."

Referring to her grade seven class, Denise says:

> Ils sont accoutumés de se faire traiter de bébés. Ils veulent se faire traiter comme des bébés.

Though the participants cling to the belief that if students could learn to take the responsibility for their own actions rather than being told how to behave by the teacher, there would be less need for constant surveillance and control by the teacher, their actions and comments in phase III indicate a shift toward increased pupil control.

The emergence of the perspective "securing control" was very closely linked to the participants establishing their teacher identity, which resulted in the adoption of rules by the participants to respond to the situational pressures of the practicum. The rules that insured the maintenance of this perspective included "create a distance" and be "firm but friendly." These were seen as ways of maintaining control or gaining respect as the participants were apt to use the terms interchangeably. In the eyes of the participants, having contol of the students insured respect as a teacher by the students.

> Un professeur rigide qui est juste envers les élèves mais qui tient à ses règlements, va, d'après moi être plus respecté que le professeur qui est mou et qui laisse passer trop de choses. (Michael)
>
> Quand tu laisses ça aller puis les élèves sont capables de faire ce qu'ils veulent, ils ne te respectent pas. (Michael)

The importance of control is evidenced in the following statements. The participants were concerned about losing control, about reacting immediatedly to a loss of control.

> C'est comme si j'avais perdu le contrôle, alors j'ai dit: "Vous allez faire ça, commencez vos devoirs." (Michael)
>
> Faut réagir tout de suite puis rien laisser passer parce que si tu laisses quelque chose passer, ils vont continuer. (Michael)

By making students aware of who was in command, the participants felt that the possibility of potential conflict was diminished. Describing a student who is always making smart comments in class, Michael says:

> Souvent ses commentaires sont critiqueux, negatifs. La dernière fois quand il a fait un commentaire comme ça, je lui ai demandé, "Est-ce qu'il y a quelqu'un qui t'as demandé de parler?" Il s'est tue immédiatement. Maintenant il est moins critiqueux parce qu'il sait que je suis capable de l'asseoir.

Increased desire for control was manifested in the participants' choice of classroom management approaches as time went by in the classroom. Typical ways of directing pupil attention and activity ranged from waiting for the pupils to be quiet, ignoring troublesome behavior, staring at students, telling students to get to work, walking in the direction of the students being disruptive, giving verbal warnings to individuals, giving verbal warnings to the whole class, talking to students after class, asking students to leave and sending students to see the principal. The participants were much more inclined to use the more severe means of handling pupil misbehavior as time went on. When confronted with an actual disciplinary situation, the classroom management approaches indicated an increasing degree of control and the desire to be in an authoritarian situation. The following incident in which John sent three students to the principal's office is a good example of this perspective in use:

> Ca faisait au moins 2-3 classes que j'arrétais à tout bout de champ avec cette classe. Je leur ai dit,"aujourd'hui j'en ai assez , vous avez perdu votre temps, vous avez perdu mon temps et puis là j'ai l'intention de travailler." Sil y en a qui continue et puis j'ai pointé à ceux qui faisait du trouble en particulier, "c'est dehors! J'ai donné suffisamment d'avertissement. La prochaine fois c'est dehors!" Et puis ils ont continué méme quand je parlais. Chantal parlait et lancait du papier. Elle ne s'est pas rendu compte que je l'avais vu. J'ai dit, "Chantal! C'est assez, va voir le directeur." Un autre élève a commencé à faire des commentaires. Alors je lui ai dit de sortir aussi. Et puis la classe s'est calmée, on a travaillé.

Faced with problems of maintaining order and attention in her grade seven class, Denise expresses her uncertainties and anxieties about how she should cope with the situation. In the following excerpts from the transcribed interviews and weekly journals with Denise, we can see the development of the perspective "securing control."

> J'essayais de rester naturelle -- d' étre moi-méme, mais je me rend compte qu'il va falloir que je sois sévère avec cette classe au niveau de la discipline. Puis, je ne sais pas ce que je vais faire.
>
> Week 1
>
> J'aime étre moi-méme avec les gens. Je crois beaucoup à l'honnéteté et à la sincérité. J'aime ça quand je peux l'étre avec mes élèves. Mais il va falloir que je commence à jouer un role.
>
> Week 2
>
> Je vais étre plus autoritaire. Je crois que

> c'est ça que je vais faire.
> Week 3

By week four of the student teaching round, she is rationalizing about the cause of her behavior.

> Well, with a situation like this class where the students are basically immature, you have to become stricter.
>
> I knew grade seven students would be excited and a little rowdy but I didn't think it would be like this. They can go a whole 60 minutes just yapping. If you didn't insist or threaten them with something, they would talk all the time.
> Week 4

There was also a shift in the way the participants saw the establishing of a "good" classroom atmosphere. Reflecting on the phase III student teaching experience, the participants spoke of the necessity of establishing firm guidelines and of identifying a framework within which the class community could work as important factors contributing to a successful teaching experience. John states:

> Ce que je réalise c'est que après que tu as établi certains cadres tu peux jouer à l'intérieur de ce cadre, mais que définitivement il faut que tu prennes des mesures pour atteindre ces cadres là.

Justifying Behavior

As the participants began to increasingly adopt classroom teacher behavior so they began to justify their actions and attitudes accordingly. The beliefs they had expressed in phase I about the importance of respecting students, attending to individual student needs, being just and relating to students at their level were tranformed in the actual practice of teaching. The participants became increasingly conservative and authoritarian with increased exposure to teaching. What had once been regarded as questionable teaching practices became accepted and even justifiable as students established their teaching identity. Participants made an effort to reduce this dissonance by supplying an explanation and by justifying their behavior in the areas of classroom management and instruction procedures, ways of interacting with students, and discipline. Justifying behavior was a form of legitimation used by the participants to defend the normality of their actions and their reasons for doing so.

The following excerpts from the transcribed interviews with John demonstrate the evolution of the perspective "justifying behavior." A common comment made by John as well as by the other participants regarded the impossibility of changing an existing situation within the student teaching context:

> Je continue la même chose parce que je ne peux rien changer dans la position que je suis. Tu sais je vois quelque chose que je suis contre puis je dois suivre exactement la même chose.

The decision to limit the choice of subject matter content to what was in the textbook is explained by John:

> Ça serait peut-être beaucoup mieux que je commence à chercher dans toutes sortes de livres pour avoir des exemples d'applications plus pratiques et tout ça mais ce que je me dis c'est que premièrement, je commence et puis deuxièment si au début j'ai une attitude positive bien il n'y a pas de raison pourquoi ça ne réussirait pas.

As well, the decision to forge ahead and present the entire content of a lesson exactly as prepared no matter how the students reacted is explained in the following manner:

> A chaque classe je ne voyais pas la moitié de ce que j'avais préparé parce que les élèves ne se taisaient pas. Alors on ne voyait pas ce qui devait être vu et il y avait bien des élèves qui perdaient leur temps à cause de d'autres personnes. Alors, j'ai dit bien voyons, je n'arrête pas, je passe rapidement sur toute la matière que j'ai planifiée et puis s'il y a des difficultés, les élèves qui seront soucieux prendront le temps de venir me voir puis ceux qu'ils ne le sont pas, tant pis pour eux.

John explains why he does not bring in films for his classes:

> A cause du temps, ça ne vaut pas la peine, je trouve, de m'organiser. Il faut que tu te prennes à l'avance. Si je voulais faire venir des films ou des vidéos, ça prend deux semaines, ça coute $5.00....Alors toutes ces choses là, c'est pour ça que je dis que ça ne vaut pas la peine. Il faut que je fasse ce que je peux avec ce que j'ai.

John senses that his classes are boring, that he always approaches the lesson in the same way:

> Je suis conscient que des fois mes classes ne sont pas ce qu'il y a de plus intéressant. Mais je me dis au moins s'ils écoutent c'est déja pas pire et puis quand même je ne peux pas être toujours intéressant. Il y a une différence entre avoir une classe plus intéressante et moins intéressante puis une classe ou ça ne va pas et ou ils ne t'écoutent pas du tout.

On the other hand, he justifies his approach by comparing himself to the cooperating teacher:

> Bien je me dis peut- être que des fois je vais être ennuyant parce que c'est toujours la même routine. Mais à ce titre là je pense que je ne suis sûrement pas pire que d'autres professeurs.

Denise justifies her teaching in a similar fashion.

> Je ne pense pas que les élèves sont émerveillés par mon enseignement mais je ne pense pas qu'ils pensent que c'est moins que ce que les autres professeurs font.

Feeling frustrated because of discipline problems in one particular class, John explains his decision to ask a troublesome student to leave the classroom:

> A un moment donné, tu essaies puis voyons, je sais bien qu'il ne faut pas lâcher mais quand tu as trente élèves, puis il y en a qui perde leur temps bien, situation de recours ....

Denise describes her perceptions of the discipline problems she is having with one class.

> You take that student out and there is no problem with the class. I don't think any teacher can do better than what I'm doing -- unless they have thought of another solution. I think I'm doing just as well as anybody would.

In justifying their behavior, the participants were quite aware of the disparity that existed between the ideal situation and the reality that they were faced with. Rather than striving to change the reality in accordance with the ideals and values that had been upheld in phase I, the participants tended to make an adaptive shift by acting in accordance with the reality and demands of the situation as perceived. This was a cognitive strategy used by the participants in order to reduce dissonance and to reduce the complexity of their environment.

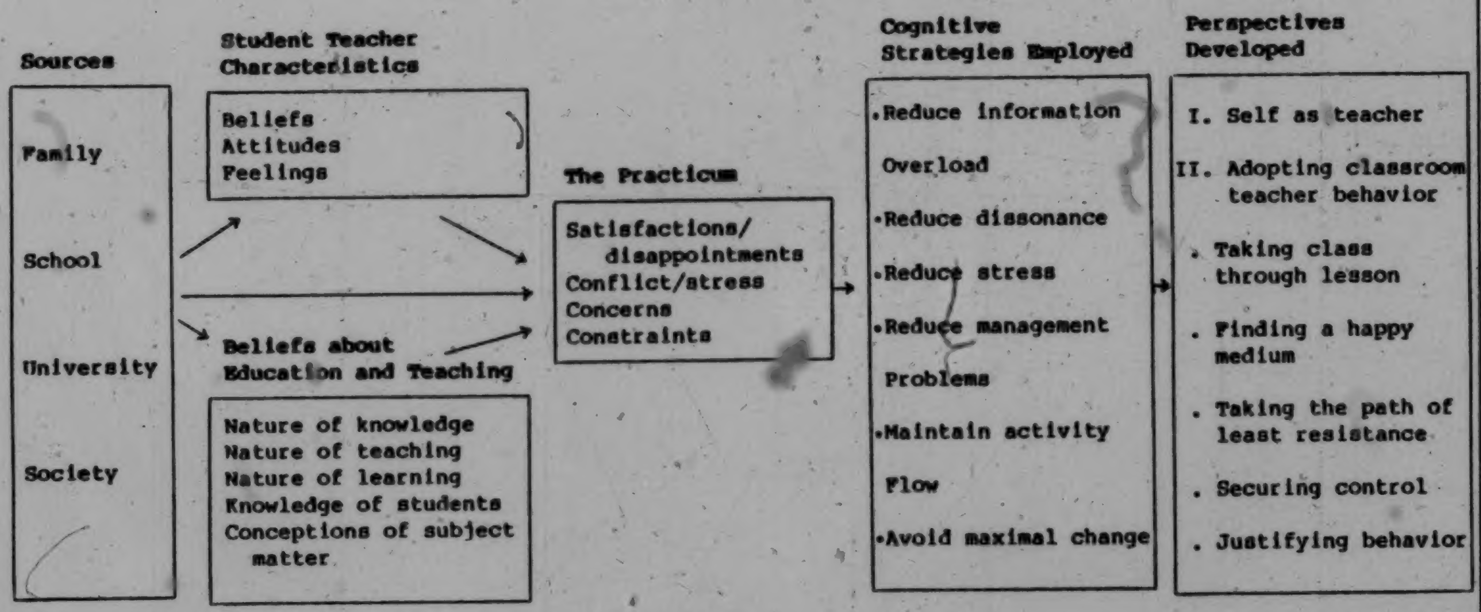
Summary

The perspectives which emerged during this study regarding the development of self as teacher and the adoption of classroom teacher behavior reflect the capacity of individuals to integrate information that they have acquired and to act on the basis of this information. According to Shavelson and Stern (1981), people make judgements and decisions based on (a) their goals, (b) the nature of the task environment confronting them, (c) their information-processing capabilities, and (d) the relationship between these elements. Based on this model, the researcher presents an overview of the elements that define the perspectives on teaching held by the participants.

The short term and long term goals of the participants can be identified respectively as getting through the student teaching experience and as becoming a teacher. The practicum was interpreted in terms of the beliefs and attitudes towards education and teaching held by each of the participants and in terms of their personal characteristics. Sources of these beliefs can be traced back to information obtained first hand or as a result of what others have said. The family, the school, the university and society in general influenced the beliefs nd attitudes of the participants. The practicum experience as a process in the becoming of a teacher was characterized by situations involving conflict and stress, by concerns revolving around one's ability to act as teacher and by situations whereby many constraints were in effect. In learning the explicit and implicit rules associated with being a student teacher, the participants relied on various cognitive strategies -- the need to reduce information overload, to reduce dissonance, to reduce stress, to reduce classroom management problems, to maintain the flow of activity in the planning and teaching of a lesson and the need to avoid introducing maximal changes. These cognitive strategies were translated into situatioal perspectives which characterized the actions and statements of the participants as they adopted classroom teacher behavior.

An overview of each of these elements and their relationship to each other is outlined in Figure 1. The researcher recognizes that the model identified in Figure 1 does not do justice to the complexity involved in organizing and integrating information into a mode of acting as teacher nor to the interactive nature of these elements or their interrelatedness. The researcher has merely attempted to identify the elements which impinge upon the development of perspectives that emerge in the process of becoming a teacher in a practicum situation.

FIGURE 1. OVERVIEW OF THE ELEMENTS CONTRIBUTING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF PERSPECTIVES ON TEACHING IN THE PRACTICUM.


Sources
Family
School
University
Society
Student Teacher Characteristics
Beliefs
Attitudes
Feelings
Beliefs about Education and Teaching
Nature of knowledge
Nature of teaching
Nature of learning
Knowledge of students
Conceptions of subject matter
The Practicum
Satisfactions/ disappointments
Conflict/stress
Concerns
Constraints
Cognitive Strategies Employed
•Reduce information Overload
•Reduce dissonance
•Reduce stress
•Reduce management Problems
•Maintain activity Flow
•Avoid maximal change
Perspectives Developed
I. Self as teacher
II. Adopting classroom teacher behavior
. Taking class through lesson
. Finding a happy medium
. Taking the path of least resistance
. Securing control
. Justifying behavior

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND RELATION TO OTHER FINDINGS

Introduction

This study was designed to describe and explain the process of becoming a teacher from the point of view of four student teachers. It focused on the beliefs, behaviors and influences which defined the practicum experience for the participants. Six exploratory questions guided the study. Summary responses to these questions can clarify the major findings which emerged from this study. The exploratory questions include:

(1) What meanings and assumptions regarding knowledge, teaching, and education does the student teacher have?

(2) What are the sources of the meanings he holds?

(3) What aspects of the practicum experience take on meaning for the student teacher?

(4) Is the meaning transformed as the student progressively moves through the various phases of the practicum?

(5) How is the meaning handled and modified by the

student teacher in dealing with the persons he encounters (teachers, students, university instructors)?

(6) Is the meaning transferred into practice?

What Meanings and Assumptions Regarding Teaching Does the Student Teacher Have ?

Student teachers come to a teacher education program with numerous beliefs and assumptions about teaching, some of which are explicitly stated, others tacitly held. As the concept of teaching involves the teacher, the teaching and the taught (D'Alton, 1979), the explication of the concept of teaching must stem from the examination of this tripartite unity. The following is a summary of the major beliefs about teaching from the perceptions of the participants in this study:

(1) Teaching is a rewarding and fulfilling career though very challenging, complex and at times exhausting.

(2) Teaching is not for everyone. It is a "gift" that one has.

(3) To be a teacher, one must like working and interacting with other people, especially young people.

(4) Rewards from teaching arise primarily from the satisfaction one has from working with students.

(5) Teachers have often gone into teaching for the wrong reasons--the material benefits associated with teaching. This has resulted in frustrated teachers.

(6) Teaching abilities will improve as the teacher gains experience in the classroom.

(7) Teaching implies the giving of something to somebody else. The teacher is the possessor of the requisite knowledge and skills which will enable the one being taught to "know."

(8) Teaching implies knowing something. The subject matter knowledge to be transmitted to students is defined by the curriculum guides and the prescribed textbooks which have been designated for a particular grade level.

(9) Teaching not only involves knowing one's subject matter well and knowing how to transmit it but also includes the whole domain of interpersonal relations.

(10) Being a teacher involves a sense of moral

responsibility--the sense of helping students, of preparing them for life.

(11) To be a teacher is to be a director of student activity. Teachers can arrange a situation in a manner that students will want to learn. The role of the teacher is one of motivating the students to want to learn.

(12) To be a teacher is to maintain order and control in the classroom.

(13) To be a teacher is to elicit work from students. It takes a teacher to stimulate intellectual curiosity.

(14) The good teacher is one who shows respect for students, who can motivate students, who is well organized and who has good discipline.

(15) Teachers are to establish good rapport with students while not becoming over friendly to the extent of being perceived as a "buddy."

(16) The student's role in the classroom is to work and learn from the experiences offered to him by the teacher.

(17) Not all students learn in the same way.

(18) For students to learn effectively, there has to be a minimum of noise and disruption in the classroom. Disciplinary problems interfere with the goals of

teaching.

(19) Adolescents are in a period of transition. They seek to be independent on the one hand while wanting the security of structure, routine and rules on the other.

(20) Adolescents will respect a teacher who can maintain order and control in the classroom.

What are the Sources of the Meanings He Holds ?

Students come to a teacher education program with a definition of the situation based on their personal experience as a student and on what others have said about teaching. Socialization into teaching has begun many years prior to enrolment in a teacher education program. Those "preparing to teach have watched experienced teachers for years and have subtly learned a good deal about what it is that teachers do and how they do it" (Eddy, 1969:8). This unconscious learning is often the basis for one's future conduct as teacher.

Most student teachers are placed in the same general type of school environment that they experienced as students. Becoming a teacher is in some ways but a continuation of their school days (Lortie, 1975). The participants in this study had a very strong affinity to school. School had generally been a very positive experience for them. They had favorable attitudes to school in general and identified with specific teachers. Eddy makes the following observation:

> As college graduates, new teachers have achieved success in the educational system. They have spent their time as pupils largely in the company of peers who have also done schoolwork well. They have fulfilled many, if not all, of their own teachers' expectations. Thus they bring to their new positions specific expectations about the nature of the school and the types of human activities and relationships which are appropriate in the classroom (Eddy, 1969:10).

The beliefs of the participants as expressed in question one provide evidence of the influence of one's schooling experiences. Their views on teaching and learning have been patterned by what they have known and experienced. The good teachers they remember were effective in the domains of interpersonal relations, instructional effectiveness and the maintenance of discipline. The participants chose teaching as a career because of their desire to work with people. Interpersonal contact was a theme stressed by the four participants. Three of the four participants indicated that parental support had been a key factor in having been successful as students.

It would appear therefore that many of the core beliefs that the participants had about "teaching" were formed as a result of the interpretations they made of their experiences as students. Much of their future actions as teachers were constructed on the basis of a definition of the situation constituted by the interaction of past experiences with the present demands of the practicum situation.

What Aspects of the Practicum Experience Take on Meaning for the Student Teacher ?

The practicum has been considered as the initial major step toward teacher socialization. In this study, the practicum was a time for learning the role of teacher. The participants increasingly began to see themselves as teachers and to act in a manner that they perceived to be congruent with a teacher identity. Similar to Huntington's (1957) study of medical students, the development of a professional self-image was an important dimension of the practicum experience. For the participants, it was a time for consolidating the concept of self in the teacher role.

The practicum had special significance for two major reasons. One, the practicum provided the opportunity to engage in classroom interaction with students. Most future teachers attach a great deal of importance to the "practical" experience they feel student teaching offers. The participants in this study were emphatic in affirming that they better understood the role of the classroom teacher as a result of their student teaching experiences. This finding is congruent with the majority of studies in the field of teacher education which support the position that student teaching is the major experience in pre-service teacher education. Mason's (1961:45) study of beginning teachers shows that "practice teaching was valued by all types of beginning teachers" and "practice teaching was more valued than education courses."

Two, the practicum is also seen as a means of affirming one's choice of career. In this study, the participants saw the practicum as a "test" situation which would serve to confirm or refute their capacity to act as teacher. As such, it was a means of entry into the chosen profession. The participants viewed their student teaching as a means of helping them break into the demands and expectations associated with their role of classroom teacher in the following year. The student teaching experience was also a means for the participants to find out more about themelves--how they reacted in different situations, how they related to people, what they liked or disliked. It was a means of knowing oneself better.

In view of the status accorded to the practicum component of the teacher education program, it is not surprising that teacher candidates view student teaching with mixed emotions. Though not all their student teaching experiences were positive, the participants in this study felt that they had learned as much about what not to do as about what to do. Student teaching allowed the participants access to certain domains in the world of the classroom teacher. Other domains remained inaccessible. Being labeled a student teacher did not allow full participation as a teacher. The participants at times referred to student teaching as a "no man's land"--one is neither student nor teacher.

Though limiting in certain respects, the practicum, especially phase III, was a time for learning the role of teacher and also one of experiencing the role pressures associated with that position. Biddle and Thomas (1966) speak of the initial concerns experienced by student teachers as stemming from stress and "role pressure"; Karmos and Jacko (1977) speak of "the anxiety associated with fulfilling obligations and expectations of a new role"; Coates and Thorensen (1966) and Sorenson and Halpert (1968) identify relationships with supervisory personnel in the area of personality and role conflicts as sources of anxieties.

The participants in this study identified three major areas of concern. The first area relates to stress associated with the establishing of a teaching identity. Establishing the concept of self as teacher consisted of a step-stage process, each stage characterized by a set of particular concerns. Congruent with the findings of Fuller (1969) and Fuller and Brown (1975), the concerns ranged from a phase of concern with self-preservation, to concern with "self" as teacher, to a later phase of concern for the students.

A second area of concern frequently referred to by the participants was in the area of cooperating teacher and student teacher relationships. The cooperating teacher played a key role in determing whether the participants viewed their student teaching as having been a positive or a negative experience. They set boundaries on what could or could not be done by the student teacher. The participants were continually aware of the evaluation the cooperating teacher would be completing at the end of the student teaching round. As a result, they were careful not to jeopardize their student teaching evaluation in any way.

A third major area of concern for the participants related to classroom management. The need for attending to classroom management problems was a major source of disappointment for the participants. Disciplinary problems were a source of frustration and anxiety. The criterion for judging whether a class went well or not was dependent on the participants' perceptions of student behavior in the classroom.

The process of becoming a teacher as experienced in the practicum involved learning how to interpret the patterns of behavior of the students, of the cooperating teacher, and of the wider school community. Knowing the expectations of others defined the role that one was to play in various situations. As student teachers, the participants learned a set of rules which allowed them to act in accordance with the particular demands of the practicum. The following tacit but implicit rules were adopted by the participants as part of the larger perspectives that evolved in the practicum: Create a Distance, Be Firm But Friendly, Don't Make Waves, Don't Take Things Personally, Work Within Limits.

Is the Meaning Transformed as the Student Progressively Moves Through the Various Phases of the Practicum ?

Each phase of the practicum took on a somewhat different meaning for the participants. Phase I helped define the situation, phase II prepared one to teach and phase III involved "real teaching" because "you were in charge of the class on an every day, full day, all day basis." The participants saw the phase III experience as a means of helping them "prepare for next year when they had their own class." The different phases of the practicum were thus seen as progressions along the journey to becoming a teacher. As expressed by Van Gennep (1960) in his theory of the rites of passage, the student teaching experience can be viewed as the passage which helps move the individual from the status of student to teacher.

The participants' definition of the situation evolved over the 18 month period between the commencement of phase I to the end of phase III. Taking on the role of teacher carried a different set of meanings depending on the context (point in the practicum, the particular setting, the disposition of the participant). The interpretive framework used by the participants was continually changing as a result of the passage of time. For Iannaccone (1963:78), "time is the element that weaves together the change in the student teacher's perspectives regarding classroom management and levels of expectation." MacGregor and Hawke (1982:43) confirm that "the simple passage of time produced large changes in the professional role" of a first year teacher.

The phase I practicum course had a very strong impact on the student teachers by reason of its content and the personality of the person responsible for teaching the course. The orientation given to phase I was one of inquiry into both philosophical and pedagogical issues which make up the field of education. For the student teachers, this represented a first occasion to stand back and critically analyze the teaching/learning process they had experienced as students. The views on the teaching/learning process expressed by the participants in interview sessions in phase I would often reflect the ideas discussed in the phase I course. Emphasis was on establishing a personal philosophy of education.

As the student teachers progressed to phase II, the emphasis was on increasing technical skills and efficiency--preparing lesson plans, knowing the subject matter, questioning techniques and motivational skills. With the full impact of teaching in phase III, the concerns of the participants revolved around being prepared, maintaining discipline and being evaluated.

Initial feelings of uncertainty regarding the choice of teaching as a career which had been expressed in phase I were replaced by feelings of confidence and assurance that teaching was indeed their chosen profession. The image of self as teacher was consolidated as the practicum progressed. The perspective of self as teacher entailed two separate but complementary processes: (1) establishing a teaching identity, and (2) "seeing yourself see" as teacher. In the process of becoming a teacher, the participants increasingly appropriated behaviours that they perceived as belonging to the teacher identity. Feeling like a teacher involved knowing one's subject matter, directing student activity, being in control and establishing relations with students.

The capacity of "seeing oneself see" developed in a manner parallel to the construction of a teaching identity. The participants' ability to stand back and analyze their actions as teacher increased as they began to feel more comfortable in their role of teacher. In the initial stages of forming a teaching identity, the participants were able to define themselves as teachers only as it related to their personal concerns of adequacy and survival. With increased time in the classroom, the participants were able to see themselves from the standpoint of the other. Thus, the participants began to conduct themselves in a manner consistent with the intentions and expectations which they perceived and identified as representative of the teacher identity.

Establishing the concept of self as teacher was characterized by a shift to more conservative, traditional and authoritarian views and actions. The questions and concerns expressed in phase I were suppressed and a perspective for justifying behavior emerged. This is consistent with the results of Cohen's work in the United Kingdom which suggests

> that students become increasingly progressive in their attitudes during the course of their college education but move in the opposite directions toward more traditional beliefs when they experience the impact of full time teaching (Cohen, 1973:406).

Salzillo (1977) offers the following explanation to account for the conservative shift in educational attitudes and behaviors of student teachers.

> The student teacher as a participant in a form of rites de passage occupies a low status and insecure position. Often the only alternative open to the neophyte, particularly in stressful situations, is to reaffirm those traditional values and behaviors of the group to which he is seeking membership ...(Salzillo, 1977:29).

Goffman (1961) supports this point of view in his study of the medical profession:

> It appears that conformity to the prescriptive aspects of role often occurs most thoroughly at the neophyte level, when the individual must prove his competence, sincerity, and awareness of his place, leaving the showing of distance from a role to a time when he is firmly "validated" in that role (Goffman, 1961:130).

Thus, the finding in this study that student teachers tend to conform to the definitions of teaching imposed by others is supported by the literature. Having no previous teaching experience to fall back on, they are unfamiliar with the "routines" (Shavelson, 1981) of the role. They quickly learn to adopt the practices of the setting in which they have been placed.

How is the Meaning Handled and Modified by the Student Teacher in Dealing With the Persons He Encounters (teachers, students, university instructors) ?

The student teaching environment is comprised of a variety of individuals who influence the expectations, values and beliefs of the future teacher. The process of socialization in which student teachers begin to adopt the roles appropriate to the members of the teacher group is based on a complex set of interactions. Friebus refers to the "image of socialization as an ongoing negotiated reality based on a complex set of interactions among a variety of individuals" (Friebus, 1977:264). In this study, the participants' views on teaching underwent some modification as they progressed through the various phases of the practicum.

To a large extent, the participants themselves were the sources for the changes in meaning that occurred. In the process of "indicating to oneself by viewing oneself from the standpoint of the other," they became active contributors in the development of their professional identity. By "importing into himself the role of others" (Meltzer, 1967:15), each participant called out responses in the students, the cooperating teacher, the university supervisor and others. These responses provided a frame of reference for viewing oneself in the role of teacher and thus guiding future conduct. Sherif (1953) speaks of reference groups as groups whose norms are used as anchoring points in structuring the perceptual field, and Merton and Kitt (1950) speak of a "social frame of reference" for interpretations. The participants in their student teaching experiences began to perceive the world from the standpoint of the school collectivity--teachers and students. Their perceptions, thoughts, judgments and feelings were rated according to the frame of reference of the membership group in which they sought participation. The membership group served to legitimate the participants' claims to a professional identity.

The participants referred to the students as the chief agents responsible for legitimating their claims to a professional identity. It was the students who allowed them to feel like teachers. As Eddy has so aptly stated:

> Authority in the classroom is not conferred together with the provisional license to teach. It must be forged out of human relationships with the class and awarded by pupils themselves. Only

> the children can truly validate the professional role by doing their lessons and learning the knowledge and skills taught, thereby claiming the professional work as worthwhile (Eddy, 1969:10).

The students were the ones having the most impact on the participants' evolving concept of self as teacher. In her study of student physicians, Huntington makes the following statement: "Self-images appear, then, to be in part 'reflections' of the expectations of others. As students are defined by their patients, so do they define themselves" (1957:183). Friebus (1977:216) confirms this finding. "When the trainees were questioned as to what they felt contributed to the development of their self-image, pupils were often cited as an important influence."

Though the participants in this study at times referred to student teaching as a "no man's land"--one in which they were neither student nor teacher, this statement was made in regard to their standing in relation to the total school environment. In the presence of the students they were teaching, the participants identified themselves as teachers. "Aussitôt que je suis dans l'école et que je suis en classe devant un groupe d'élèves, je suis professeur." (Denise)

The cooperating teacher had a significant effect on how the participants defined the situation. The parameters within which student teachers can work are well established before their arrival in the classroom. The participants recognized that they were walking into an established class climate and that a set of expectations and patterns of interaction were in effect. This fact was a constraining factor affecting the range of possibilities open to the participants. The participants generally accepted the way things were done because it was easier than attempting to make any changes within the limited time frame of the practicum.

The influence of the cooperating teacher was primarily in setting the tone in which the participants would work rather than in having a direct impact on the teaching style of the student teacher. The participants expressed the sentiment that learning to teach is a personal experience.

> Learning to teach is personal. If I see something that the cooperating teacher does that I can adapt to my teaching, fine. If it's not me, I don't want it. No thank you because-I mean you've got to be yourself. I think that it's a matter of each person developing his own style. You can't impose a teaching style.

To the extent that the climate as perceived by the participants was one in which they were given constructive criticism, allowed autonomy and independence, freedom to try new ideas and given some measure of control, they perceived the student teaching experience to be positive.

Conflicts arose when the participants perceived a lack of support from their cooperating teacher or when either party failed to establish good communication.

Evaluation was an important element dominating the tone of the phase III student teaching experience. Though rarely identified as a major factor influencing their actions and statements, being evaluated was nonetheless a continual source of stress and anxiety for the participants. They learned to accommodate rather than risk a poor evaluation. On many occasions, this required a compromise on the part of the participants leading to a process of self-negotiation in which the trade-off for getting through the practicum involved adapting to the established way of doing things and not attempting to "make any waves" by introducing significant changes.

With increased time spent in the classroom, the participants adopted teacher behavior which can be charaterized as conservative and authoritarian. The influence of the cooperating teacher in the movement of the participants toward more conservative educational attitudes and procedures is difficult to assess. As Mahan has indicated

> It is possible that the reality of teaching (even if no supervising teacher were present) would move liberal student teachers towards more conservative educational attitudes and

> procedures. Campus educational idealism perhaps is surrendered by student teachers newly responsible for classroom management, planning, diagnostic activities, equipments, care, etc., regardless of the philosophic orientations of the co-operating teacher (Mahan, 1977:5).

The image of self as teacher was also consolidated as a result of interactions that the participants had with their university supervisor, peers and friends. The contributions of these people in the development of the participants' self-image was less influential in the immediate reality of the practicum situation than that of the pupils or the cooperating teacher. By not being involved on a daily basis with the participants, they had less influence on the development of the participants' professional self-image.

Is the Meaning Transferred into Practice ?

By allowing the participants entry into the world of the classroom teacher, the practicum was a time for learning to identify and meet expectations which came from self, cooperating teachers, university supervisors and students. Each participant's experiences were unique. There were however similarities or commonalities in the ways that the participants reacted to the student teaching situation. The process of becoming a teacher as experienced in the practicum involved learning the ground rules so as to interpret the patterns of behavior, to know the expectations of the other and to define the role that one was to play in various situations. These rules though never formally acknowledged served to direct the participants' behavior as teacher in a practicum situation. They were discovered to be an effective way of reacting to the demands of the student teaching setting. The rules learned by the participants in the practicum included: Create a Distance, Be Firm but Friendly, Don't Make Waves, Don't Take Things Personally, and Work Within Limits (cf. Chapter IV). These rules were part of the larger perspectives common to all participants which evolved. The term perspective as used in this study is defined by Becker et al. (1961) as being composed of: (1) a definition of the situation, (2) a disposition to act as dictated by the situation, and 3) criteria of judgment.

As described in question number four, the development of the concept of self as teacher was a major perspective which evolved throughout the different phases of the practicum. The establishing of a teaching identity enabled the participants to organize their perceptions, thoughts and actions in a logical, ordered and consistent manner and helped define and guide future behavior in the classroom.

In appropriating classroom teacher behavior, the participants adopted patterns for responding based on the interpretations they made of the situation. The patterns or perspectives that evolved were labeled by the researcher as: Taking the Class Through the Lesson, Finding a Happy Medium, Taking the Path of Least Resistance, Securing Control and Justifying Behavior. A more detailed description of each of these perspectives is given in Chapter V.

CHAPTER VII

REFLECTIONS

Introduction

Man has the capacity to withdraw from his situation, to study himself as the object of his own actions, to self-reflect and thus act in a purposeful and meaningful manner to change his life-world. It is the capacity for self-reflection, for self-determination that marks the essence of man. According to Taylor, man can be described as a self-defining being, and a self-interpreting animal.

> He is necessarily so, for there is no such thing as the structure of meanings for him independently of his interpretation of them; for one is woven into the other (Taylor, 1977:111).

The structure of meanings that defined the practicum for each of the student teachers was presented in the previous chapters. In becoming like a teacher, student teachers adopted certain perspectives which allowed them to act as "teacher" within the practicum setting. Underlying the perspectives adopted by the participants are the presuppositions upon which actions and beliefs are based.

The purpose of this chapter is to reflect on the taken-for-granted presuppositions that created and sustained the different perspectives held. Reflection as defined in this chapter refers to the "procedure by which the person thinks about or examines what he feels, knows, and experiences in order to increase what he knows and understands about himself and his relationship to the world" (Berman and Roderick, 1977:179). This chapter is devoted to reflection--reflection on the research process followed in this study, on the teaching-learning process as viewed by the participants, on teacher education (in particular the practicum), and on the researcher's role as a teacher educator. For as Dewey has stated: "The things which we take for granted without inquiry or reflection are just the things which determine our conscious thinking and decide our conclusions" (Dewey, 1944:18).

Reflections on the Research Process

The interpretation of the process of becoming a teacher as experienced by the student teachers themselves constituted the purpose of the study. In attempting to get at the "web of meanings" which allowed participation as a teacher, the researcher attempted to interpret social reality as the subjects themselves would define it. The description of reality from the point of view of the "insider" requires a research process which is structured from the "emic" or "insider's" view.

> According to this view, cultural behaviour should always be studied and categorized in terms of the "inside-view"--the actor's definition--of human events (Pelto, 1970:68).

To this end, the researcher selected four student teachers to act as key informants in describing the reality of the practicum as they experienced it. The researcher attempted to bring out the insider's view of reality through the use of field research techniques--informant interviewing, observation and document analysis. In analyzing and reporting on the data gathered, an attempt was made to make explicit what was often implicit or tacit to the participants involved.

In looking back over the two year period from the time of first contact with the participants to the final stages of data analysis after completion of the field work, many thoughts and feelings surface about the research process. Experiences of the researcher have been ones of stress, learning and personal growth.

The stress experiences were generally related to the nature of this type of research.

> In more than any other methodological research approach, the ethnographer, because he/she uses him/herself as a task for doing research, is in a

> unique position to experience stress in the research setting (Zigarmi and Zigarmi, 1980:1).

There are no standardized procedures or instruments to fall back on. There are no specific questions or hypotheses to be confirmed or refuted. Although it is possible to identify the attributes of good qualitative research in education (cf. Bogdan and Biklen, 1982; Spindler, 1982), there is no one right way of defining and approaching the problem or of collecting and analyzing the data.

The researcher had initial feelings of doubt and insecurity: "What happens if the information I gather is meaningless?" "How do I know when I will have enough information?" "What do I do if no overriding patterns or themes emerge from the data?" As well, the researcher was always confronted with methodological considerations: "What effect am I having on those being observed?" "Are the participants giving me 'authentic' information?" "How are my biases influencing what I am seeing and recording?"

In the early stages of data collection, the researcher was often unsure as to what to observe and what questions to ask. She had to learn to trust the informants to give her the information that would allow for further questioning and probing. The research process was dependent on the researcher's ability to jointly collect and analyze the data, in order to develop "working hypotheses" to take back to the field.

In the later stages of the research process, the overriding concern was related to the organization of the data. Faced with pages and pages of written material obtained from the transcribed interview sessions, weekly journals, class assignments, her own field notes and field journal, the researcher was faced with the task of making sense of the mass of data. The model of theory development set forth by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Turner's (1981) suggestions for organizing the cognitive processes associated with implementing the Glaser and Strauss "grounded theory approach" proved useful. The coding of categories from the data however, was demanding and time-consuming. Some categories were difficult to label and necessitated rereading of the paragraph and comparison to other incidents already coded within that category. Pasting informant quotes onto index cards defined by color and alphabetical code, on the basis of categories identified, was particularly time-consuming but proved to be a valuable exercise in helping the researcher gain a composite view of the whole and of its constituent parts. The index cards were easier to manipulate than pages of written information. It was possible to lay them out or stack them into different piles depending on the relationships one wished to highlight. This was most useful in reducing the original list of categories identified to a smaller set of higher order and more inclusive themes.

As the final stages of data analysis came to a close, the researcher was beset with problems of how to report the data: "How best to illuminate the complexities of the process of becoming a teacher in the student teaching experience?" "Which pair of lenses to put on?" "How to give a description which would provide a complete picture of the studied group?" In pondering these questions, the researcher quickly realized that the practicum experience did not represent a single reality but rather multiple realities. As a ray of light may fall on and illuminate only one of the many facets of a gem, so the researcher may be able to describe only one facet of the reality she wishes to portray. In the words of Geertz,

> Cultural analysis is intrinsically incomplete. And, worse than that, the more deeply it goes the less complete it is. It is a strange science whose most telling assertions are its most tremulously based, in which to get somewhere with the matter at hand is to intensify the suspicion, both your own and that of others, that you are not quite getting it right. (Geertz, 1973:29)

Notwithstanding the stress that accompanied this type of research, the research experience was very worthwile and satisfying. When attempting to get at cultural meanings held by participants in a particular social setting, researchers become learners and participants become teachers. Involvement in this type of research proved to be a learning experience for the researcher and for the informants. As the participants became more at ease with the researcher, they were eager to share confidences and to describe their experiences as becoming teachers. They became the "knowledgeable ones."

The use of video recording as a means of stimulating recall of the participants interactive thought processes and feelings proved to be a learning experience for the participants. This technique furthered their awareness of themselves as teachers. Careful in not wanting to be judgmental when viewing the videotapes with the participants, the researcher attempted to avoid any evaluative-type statements. The participants however engaged in self-evaluation. In being able to see the students' reactions to their statements and actions, in being able to view themselves in the person of teacher, they became progressively more self-analytical and better able to assess their shortcomings and strengths. A process of self-evaluation was set into motion. Often when viewing a videotape of their teaching, the participants make comments to the effect that "they had not realized that such and such was occuring in the classroom," and that in further lessons they would try to change.

The experience of viewing oneself within this context did not appear to be threatening to the participants. In reflecting upon this technique, it is the opinion of the researcher that viewing a video of oneself is a means of talking about oneself without feeling threatened. Just as individuals at times find it easier to express their thoughts and feelings through the medium of puppets, so the participants found it easier to discuss how they felt or thought by discussing what was being seen on screen than to talk first-hand without an image. The video allowed the student-teacher a platform to get outside oneself and to "indicate to oneself in the role of others" (Mead, 1934). In this study, it helped the participants "see themselves see." They were able to engage in a process of self-renewal. As they viewed the videotape and thought aloud, they became more reflective and critical about their teaching behavior and teaching style.

This may imply a new supervisory style for the practicum, one in which student teachers can initiate changes in their behavior through a process of communication which is non-threatening, non-evaluative and which permits reflection on being a teacher through viewing a videotape of their teaching. The present style of supervision generally consists of the university supervisor and cooperating teacher indicating to student teachers the good and the weak points of their lessons. These evaluation sessions may have little effect if change does not come from within. Student teachers may not take into account suggestions for change made to them simply because they do not perceive themselves in the same manner as they are perceived by others. The result of viewing oneself and of reflecting on one's thoughts and actions may lead to personal change and transformation.

For the researcher, becoming aware of the student teacher's capacity to engage in self-renewal was a learning experience. As a teacher educator involved with the supervision of student teachers in the past, the researcher was accustomed to a very directed, structured, instructional supervisory style. In evaluation sessions with student teachers, the researcher would indicate strengths, weaknesses, approve or disapprove. In reflecting upon her supervisory style, the researcher wondered how meaningful the experience was to the student teachers? As well, the following questions merit further consideration: Is change brought about by forces from the outside or from the inside? If the forces for change occur primarily from within the individual, are we giving student teachers the necessary tools for reflecting on their own behavior, for self-renewal?

The qualitative research approach used in this study allowed for an in-depth understanding of the world of the student teacher as described by four informants. It also was a means for personal growth by the researcher. The research process was a sensitizing experience that had been largely unanticipated by the researcher. Armed with a wealth of theoretical knowledge in learning, child development, curriculum, educational administration, and teacher education coupled with practical knowledge gained as a former teacher, practicum supervisor and teacher educator, the researcher felt quite familiar with the research problem that was being addessed. Looking at the problem from the vantage point of the student teacher gave the researcher a different perspective. To use Erickson's (1973) phrase, the "familiar was made strange." Spindler (1982:3) affirms that "ethnography can provide a sensitizing experience of great significance."

Inherent to this type of research is the need for the researcher to be attentive to personal feelings and actions and to their possible effect on people in the research setting and on data collection. This constant introspection involved the examination of the researcher's inner world. With this reflection came the realization that, as researcher and teacher, many underlying assumptions, values and biases were largely unexamined and taken for granted. This to say the least was unsettling. Greene tells us that "the individual has to be jolted into awareness of his own perceptions, into recognition of the way in which he has constructed his own life-world" (Greene, 1973:132).

This jolting of awareness generated reflection on the underlying assumptions and beliefs held by the participants regarding the nature of teaching and learning, the nature of teacher education, in particular the practicum, and the researcher's role as teacher educator.

Reflections on the Teaching-Learning Process

Assumptions about the teaching/learning process undergird the classroom practices of teachers. There are many assumptions that lie behind the pedagogical decisions made by teachers in the definition of the classroom reality. Assumptions about learning, about the nature of the students, about the nature of knowledge, about teaching style operate implicitly to order the teacher's and students' world. To better understand what it means to become a teacher, it is necessary to reflect on the explicit and tacit inferential structures which make up what Schutz (1967) refers to as the "stock of knowledge at hand." The participants in this study arrived in the practicum with a set of meanings and assumptions regarding knowledge, teaching and education based on their experiences as students in the school and on the influence of significant others (parents, previous teachers, peers).

Assumptions about Learning

Assumptions about human nature and the way a child learns are at the core of a teacher's organization of knowledge and has consequences for the transmission of knowledge. Esland (1971:88) distinguishes between two generic types of psychological models that are of significance in the development of pedagogy: a psychometric model, and the epistemological model of Piaget and Bruner. In the psychometric model, the child is viewed essentially as object; in the epistemological model the child actively constructs and arranges his knowledge of the world in his developing interpretational schema. The dominant psychological theory adhered to by the participants in this study was the psychometric model. Though the participants would vehemently reject the idea that they view the students as passive objects to be filled with knowledge, their statements and actions in the classroom belie the point.

> Il faut que l'élève sorte de la salle de classe en ayant appris des choses, en ayant appris, en ayant suivi du mieux qu'il pouvait ce que le professeur lui présentait. (John)

Van Manen (1976) describes this teaching paradigm as one in which learning is regarded as the consequence of some causal sequence, a sequence engineered by the teacher to produce a certain response in the student. To this one dimensional view of the student is the additive view of knowledge--the feeling that students should come out of class having accumulated certain knowledge, that knowledge can be added on to an existing body of knowledge. Within this model, the student is viewed as a repository to be filled with knowledge. Cunningham (1979) speaks of the digestive concept of knowledge as food and the students as repository.

The following description given by Esland provides a good summary of the psychometric model:

> The psychometric model endows the child with an 'intelligence', a capacity of given power within which his thinking develops. He is a novitiate in a world of pre-existing, theoretical forms into which he is initiated and which he is expected to reconstitute. ...
>
> This view regards the child--by definition--as a deficit system; a passive object to be progressively initiated into the public thought forms which exist outside him as massive, coercive facilities, albeit 'worthwhile'ones... (Esland, 1971:89)

Within this model, students are to be docile and deferential. The good pupil is one who pays attention, who completes his assignments, who does well on exams, who shows signs of progress.

> In this class, I find those three girls the most polite, the smartest and I really place a lot of importance on that. Like you just realize how polite they are and I'm going to say sweet. (Judy)

The problem student is one who can't keep up with the rest of the class, or who is not motivated, or who disrupts the class, or who defies the teacher. The participants had an ideal image of the good student against which the students were rated. This is congruent with Becker's (1952) findings that teachers tend to differentiate their clients according to the degree of closeness which they achieve to the ideal image.

Assumptions about Teaching

Within the psychometric model, the teacher controls access to the "mysteries" of the subject matter being presented. It is "a view which sees education as a one-dimensional progressivism, and which regards the properties of knowledge as inert 'things to be mastered'..." (Esland, 1971:89). There is a sense that the teacher has something which the students do not have. This view of man as a passive object legitimates a didactic pedagogy. Instructing and motivating the students is the domain of the teacher. The teacher must find the means to make the pupils pay attention, master the subject matter, work while in class. As Esland states: "This pedagogical perspective is likely to predispose the teacher to limit the range of possible solutions to questions, and to be preoccupied with right answers and 'the right way'" (1971:89).

Teaching consists of "information - dissemination" or what Freire (1968) refers to as the banking concept of education. Teachers are considered to be the possessors of the requisite expertise and skills to bring the students to a desired state of affairs. Van Manen (1976) describes the teacher's role as one of "manipulating the cognitive field so as to compel the students to achieve the curriculum learning objectives." Evidence of this teaching paradigm is provided in the following statement:

> The giving out of information is different for every student. For one student, they're going to understand in two minutes what you're trying to say but another one is not. You have 30 kids in front of you, so you have to have the knack for teaching all those kids or trying to teach the

> majority of those kids what you want to teach them and what you're supposed to teach them. (Judy)

Didactic control (Barnes, 1969) is crucial in teacher-student interactions. Being in control of the teaching/learning processes are essential to the participant's definition of self as teacher.

The psychometric model with its assumptions of human nature, and the processes of teaching and learning has many consequences. The teaching/learning process is seen as having an existence in itself, separate from those who are engaged in the process. Teaching and learning derive their meaning from the official structure of schooling as defined by the school curricula, goals and objectives identified in the prescribed program of studies, textbooks which make up the course content and the expectations of society in general. Teaching and learning become "reified."

A consequence of the reification of the selection and transmission of knowledge is the separation between "public and private identities, both for teachers and pupils" (Bernstein, 1971). There is an accepted, unquestioned acknowledgement that the role of teacher is separate from the person of teacher. Benton affirms this when he says:

> There seems to be very little recognition that a

> teacher is a human being and that a teacher has transitional stages, that a teacher is a modern man, and that a teacher is more than just something that goes in to a classroom, and, like, teaches (Benton, 1970:48).

The consequences of accepting a severed view of one's public and private identities leads to a fragmented experiencing of self. By accepting labels ascribed to the role of teacher as doer--facilitator, implementor, planner, disciplinarian--teachers accept restricting their experiencing of self to one narrow dimension. For the student teachers in this study, experiencing the self as teacher was often one of accepting the definitions imposed by others. This led to the formation of rules and the evolution of perspectives which can be considered as coping mechanisms--taking the class through the lesson, finding a happy medium, taking the path of least resistance, securing control, and justifying behavior. In some instances, to the participants, becoming a teacher meant renouncing parts of their personal selves while acting as teacher in the school setting. Becoming a teacher in this sense can be a growth-inhibiting experience. By negating parts of oneself in becoming a teacher, the participants focused their energies on meeting deficiency needs--need to be liked and accepted by students and staff, to find the necessary resources for a lesson, to know one's subject matter well, to be in command and to cope with the pressures associated with student teaching--and were unable to focus on growth needs. According to Maslow and other third-force psychologists,

> Self-actualization ... means to transcend the deficiency-needs. Being, expressing, rather than coping. This state of Being, rather than of striving, is suspected to be synonymous with selfhood, with being "authentic", with being a person, with being fully human (Maslow, 1968:202).

Reflections on Teacher Education

The shift from the more progressive, liberal attitudes expressed in phase I by the participants to the more conservative, traditional, authoritarian views expressed in phase III invites reflection. Recent studies (Cohen,1973; Salzillo and Van Fleet, 1977; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1981) indicate that student teaching may not have the effect counted on

> Rather than opening up the prospective practitioners to the possibility of actualizing their emergent value orientations in the public school room, student teaching has instead an illiberal, regressive effect on the participants causing them to become in Spindler's awkward jargon, "re-affirmative traditionalists." Teacher education institutions are, at least partially, defeating their own purposes when student teaching is allowed to become simply an exercise in adopting new personnel into the old patterns (Salzillo and Van Fleet, 1977:28).

In reflecting upon these attitudinal shifts, the following questions merit consideration:

-Did the participants' views toward teaching shift as a result of the student teaching experience?

-Did the participants maintain, as Shipman (1967a:55) would say, "two levels of professional attitude, one for official use on stage, and one for use backstage out of official hearing, or later on in the classroom?"

-Were the views expressed in phase III representative of the true values and attitudes held by the participants?

-What end does the practicum serve?

-What is the relationship between the theory and practice of teaching?

-What is the impact of the university experience on the school experience?

Answers to these questions cannot be given definitively. They do invite reflection.

It is not the belief of the researcher that the participants consciously held two different sets of attitudes, one for official use and the other for use backstage. The beliefs expressed were logically consistent with the reality of the moment. The dichotomy between the theory and practice of teaching as exemplified in the shift in attitudes between phase I and phase III illustrates a dimension of belief systems. Individuals are quite capable of holding different clusters of beliefs in isolation from other clusters . Green (1964:298) in "A Typology of the Teaching Concept" describes the "dimension in every belief system by which certain clusters of beliefs are held more or less in isolation from other clusters and protected from any relationship with other sets of beliefs." The participants in this study held clusters of beliefs relating to the "ideal" situation as opposed to the "real" situation. Contrary views and actions could be held without producing a conflict by virtue of the isolation of clusters. Each cluster was valid and applicable depending on the situation. The practicum was seen as falsifying reality in some way. Though it had the texture of reality, it did not represent the reality of a teacher who had sole responsibility of his classes from day one of the school year.

Becker et al. (1961) in their study of student medical culture found that immediate situational pressures constrained behavior in the present but did not necessarily have any effect beyond the situation in which it operates.

> Values operate and influence behavior in situations in which they seem to the actors to be relevant. Where that relevance is not clear, the values are not used and others, more appropriate to the problems to be faced, are brought into play .... the immediate situations in which action must be taken constrain behavior in specific ways and actors must come to terms with

> these immediate situational imperatives. The patterns of thought and action they develop in meeting these imperatives are their immediate perspectives (Becker et al., 1961:430-431).

Further research is needed to indicate whether the situational perspectives developed in the practicum hold in the long term as prospective teachers settle into the reality of being a classroom teacher.

In reflecting on the life-history of each of the participants, one is struck with the affinity each had toward school. Many of the perceptions they had of the good teacher stem from their experiences as students. These remembered experiences are at the core of their belief systems and according to Green have the greatest psychological strength.

> We can visualize a belief system as having a spacial dimension, as having the structure of a set of concentric circles. Within the core circle will be those beliefs held with greatest psychological strength, those which we are most prone to accept without question and, therefore, least able to debate openly and least able to change. As we move from circle to circle toward the perimeter there will be distributed those beliefs which we hold with progressively less strength and are more prepared to examine, discuss and alter (Green, 1964:297).

Beliefs which differ from the student teacher's core beliefs and which have come under consideration as a result of time spent in one or two university courses may be considered to be on the outside perimeter of the belief system. As such, they have less psychological strength and are more likely to be modified, transformed or rejected in times of stress and anxiety. In the student teaching experience, the progressive and liberal attitudes and beliefs which had been adhered to in phase I lose their psychological strength and the student teachers revert to their core beliefs and values.

If "teaching has less to do with _what_ we believe and more to do with _how_ we believe" (Green, 1964:294), one may ask how the practicum can affect how we believe. It is obvious that the forces of socialization are very powerful in the school setting. Faced with the demands and pressures that are part of the practicum, student teachers will generally accede to the way things are. Expectations of teacher behavior are powerful forces molding the ways teachers view their own behaviors. They come to accept the world of the school as given, unchangeable and predefined. Greene speaks of the human tendency to accept as absolute what Berger and Luckmann (1966) refer to as the "constructed character of social reality."

> (The) tendency to perceive our everyday reality as a given--objectively defined, impervious to change. Taking it for granted, we do not realize that that reality, like all others, is an interpreted one. It presents itself to us as it does because we have learned to undertand it in

standard ways (Greene, 1978:44).

Teacher educators must engage in the process of self-reflection in regards to the stock of knowlege about teaching they are transmitting. The psychometric paradigm (Esland, 1971) of teaching and learning which is implicit in most teacher education programs are perpetuating values and behaviors which favour the maintenance of the *status quo* . It is a model which

> emphasises order, categorisation and classification, and which over-values support (pastoral-care and supervision), authority, evidence and 'scientific method', solitary learning and the elimination of self from the process" (Combs *et al.* , 1974:39-40).

These views have become sedimented in the culture of schooling with educators working for its own continued legitimation.

Student teaching will continue to be a process of socializing new teachers into existing patterns unless the participants experience a change which will transform their core beliefs and values. The preparation of teachers needs to focus on freeing individuals of the unconscious influences of the practices of previous teachers they have internalized. In the words of Lortie, the aim of teacher preparation programs should be

> to increase the person's awareness of his beliefs and preferences about teaching and to have him expose them to personal examination. ... Unless teachers-to-be are aware of their preconceptions and internalizations, the varieties of instructional methods they study may be wasted...(Lortie, 1975:231).

According to Lortie, practice teaching as it presently exists offers little opportunity for future teachers to critically examine their beliefs about teaching.

> Because of its casualness and narrow scope, therefore, the usual practice teaching arrangement does not offset the unreflective nature of prior socialization; the student teacher is not forced to compare, analyze, and select from diverse possibilities (Lortie, 1975:71).

The preceding statements imply that greater attention be given to providing experiences to teacher candidates which will permit them to successfully experience alternative learning and teaching models, to engage in self-reflection, to explore their self-other perceptions and to value themselves as persons.

Change has to do with personal transformation. A new understanding of self as teacher may accompany personal transformation. Teacher education has not traditionally been concerned with demystifying the way things are. Maxine Greene says the following of teacher education:

> Even where emphasis has been placed on the

> importance of critical thinking or experimental intelligence, there has been a tendency to examine an unexamined surface reality as "natural," fundamentally unquestionable. There has been a tendency as well to treat official labelings and legitimations as law-like, to overlook the constructed character of social reality (Greene, 1978:54).

Teacher education has often failed in preparing its students to engage in questioning, in problem posing, in self-reflectiveness, in providing a capacity for "wide-awakeness" (Greene, 1978) in which individuals become attuned to themselves and what is happening around them. Self-reflection needs to be encouraged. The process of self-reflection can start only from the locus of the subject himself.

> The thinker never thinks from any starting-point but the one constituted by what he is (Merleau-Ponty, 1967:xix).

Educating the person of teacher would pay attention not only to the activity side of teaching but also to the being side of teacher. Denton (1974) maintains that "teaching is a mode of being in the world" and therefore one cannot sever teaching from the teacher. If this is so, one needs to pay attention to the person of student teacher. How they ground their values? What they conceive to be good? What they define their life purposes to be?

> Because teachers are living beings, they suffer objectification like other members of the society; they also are thrust into molds. They play roles in many ways defined by others, although their interpretations of these roles must in some manner, be grounded in an understanding of themselves. ... It ought to be possible to bring teachers in touch with their own landscapes. Then learning may become a process of the "I" meeting the "I" (Greene, 1978:39).

Prospective teachers need to clarify their basic beliefs and values in order to arrive at a personal philosophy of education to guide them in their actions.

> Without that awareness and that hope, teachers find it unimaginably difficult to cope with the demands of children in these days. They may become drifters as a result, or authoritarians. If they undergo a purely technical training or a simplified "competency-based" approach, they are likely to see themselves as mere transmission belts--or clerks. The question of the freedom of those they try to teach, the question of their students' endangered selves; these recede before a tide of demands for "basics," "discipline," and preparation for the "world of work." Teachers (artlessly, wearily) become accomplices in mystification. They have neither the time, nor energy, nor inclination to urge their students to critical reflection; they, themselves have suppressed the questions and avoided backward looks (Greene, 1978:38).

Laing (1967) makes the point that a person behaves in a manner consistent with how he experiences himself. If his experience is fragmented or destroyed, his behavior will be destructive. Cunningham (1979:7) remarks that "it is not surprising that teachers who experience themselves as objects begin to treat students in the same way."

The use of the qualitative approach may be useful in helping future teachers clarify their values and beliefs. Small-scale research projects, involving field research techniques in the schools in which student teachers are placed for their practicum, may help to increase awareness of how values and beliefs shape what occurs in the classroom.

> Systematic fieldwork enables students to begin to see how power is distributed, the kinds of pressures teachers face, the level of support an administrator provides, or the way students make sense out of school life. We underscore that the purpose here is to help students stand back from their own taken-for-granted notions of school life in order first to examine them, and second to see school through others 'eyes' (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982:211).

Other means of stimulating a critical awareness of one's taken-for-granted notions may involve the use of stimulated recall techniques. The merit of this technique for helping student teachers engage in a process of self-renewal when viewing a videotape of their teaching has been described in the section "Reflections on the Research Process."

Reflections of a Teacher Educator

> This is why it is impossible to produce scholars who in the true sense of the word are wise ..., if they know nothing about themselves. Without self-knowledge in depth, the master of any field will be a child in human wisdom and human culture. (Kubie, 1967)

The experiences associated with carrying out this study led me to reflect on my role as teacher educator. The study became a mirror in which I could see reflections of self. Underlying taken-for-granted assumptions, beliefs and values which had rarely been questioned surfaced. There was a realization that the research act is based to a large extent on personal knowledge. The understanding acquired from having attempted to understand reality from the vantage point of another is a personal understanding.

> Information may be public, but each human makes sense of it in a different way. Threads may be common, but people weave their unique fabrics ... (Yamamoto in Brimfield et al., 1983:12).

The study was a means to get back in touch with my personal self. Much like the student teachers described in this study, I had too often made the distinction between the "public" and "private" self. It was often easier to adopt the role of "teacher" where emphasis was placed on the activity side of teaching than to be a person who teaches. I had become (unconsciously and unwittingly perhaps) an active participant in constructing a reality in which people interacted on a "role to role" or a "function to function" basis (Webb, 1977:36). The researcher had adopted the segmentation of the institutional world--forgetting that the nature of social reality is not fixed but rather constructed and maintained by the people who inhabit that reality (Berger and Luckmann, 1966). With this realization came a heightened sense of the personal self.

> Nothing determines me from the outside, not because nothing acts upon me, but, on the contrary, because I am from the start outside myself and open to the world, We are true through and through, and have with us, by the mere fact of belonging to the world, and not merely being in the world in the way that things are, all that we need to transcend ourselves (Merleau-Ponty, 1967:456).

Reflecting upon one's reflections led to the following concerns:

-What do I value in myself, in my students and in my teaching?

-What values and beliefs have I transmitted in my teaching?

-What have I transmitted as being important in one's preparation for teaching?

-How do I perceive the relationship between teacher and learner?

-How do I perceive students to learn?

-How do I act as teacher?

-Why is it necessary to appear as knowledge expert when becoming a teacher?

-Why is it often less threatening to act as teacher rather than learner?

-How do I encourage prospective teachers to confront themselves in a critical examination of their beliefs and values?

-How do I reconcile my views on the importance of the personal dimension with the learning outcomes I strive to attain in the courses I teach?

-How can I presume to know what needs to be taught for an individual to become a teacher?

-What are the expectations and beliefs held about teaching in our culture?

To some of these questions, no answers could be given--only further questions. Though the reflective process did not provide definitive answers, it did generate a new awareness and further insights. The dialogue with self which arose through confrontation and examination of these fundamental questions engendered a personal move to consider alternative ways of looking at the teacher-learner relationship in teacher education courses for which I was responsible. A relationship in which being the teacher did not necessarily imply being the expert or having all the answers, but one involving a shared adventure in which at times the learner became teacher and at other times the teacher became learner. In the words of Beittel,

> Is the teacher then a guide? Again, yes and no. Yes, because a teacher recognizes many of the geological and botanical features of the terrain. No, because as an other he or she cannot perceive what the beginner perceives. No more than the beginner can perceive what the teacher perceives. Their shared entry into that landscape, to be effective, must be jointly experienced as a unique existential event (Beittel, 1977:117)

For Greene (1978), if teacher educators are to make a difference in bringing students to a critical examination of their beliefs and values, they

> ought to avoid, if possible, the high-sounding voice of expertise. They and their students might well enter a conversation with one another, the kind of conversation that allows a truly human way of speaking, a being together in a world susceptible to questioning. Each one, including the one who is the teacher, might articulate his or her particular themes of relevance--might speak truthfully and simply about backgrounds and foregrounds, and what it means to be present, what it means to reach out and to question and to learn (Greene, 1977:69).

Attention to the person of teacher demands that as teacher educator, I enable individuals to reflect upon their own lives. "If we are all that our teachers allow us to be" (Vandenberg in Beittel, 1977:120), I must ask how I have allowed for future teachers to engage in the process of self-renewal and critical questioning. Have I taught teachers as I would want them to teach? Have I perpetuated the existing order by presenting "facts" and "theories" as givens, unchangeable and unquestionable? My challenge as teacher educator is in trying to find ways in which I can share "the landscapes of learning" (Greene, 1978) with my students so that they in turn may be willing to try the same with their students.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Researcher's Statement of Beliefs

Researcher's Statement of Beliefs

The statement of beliefs presented is a product of previous teaching and life-experiences, of previous readings and of previous conversations. My personal philosophy of life and of education is a synthesis from many sources. Basic to my interpretation of the aim of education lies a view of the nature of man and the sources of possible knowledge. As Brubacher states:

> As we look upon life so we teach. What we believe, the loyalties to which we hold, subtly determine the content and the method of our teaching (Brubacher, 1951:1).

Man can be viewed as becoming. This definition though very simple implies a great deal. It implies that man has a goal; it implies the existence of a process through which he becomes what he aspires to become; it implies that man's nature has a dynamic and evolving character; and finally it implies that someone is responsible for the process. The conception of man as a dynamic individual in the process of becoming, ever striving towards self-fulfillment is central to the thought of such humanist psychologists as Rogers and Maslow.

The necessary knowledge to activate one's potential is both the knowledge which originates from exterior reality and the knowledge which is rooted in the inner reality of man. Man is both the object of science and the subject of science. The description of objective spatio-temporal events presupposes understanding and interpretation in a communication community. Taylor (1977) argues that one can make sense of social reality only by reference to constitutive intersubjective meanings. In order to understand an individual, it is necessary to view him as part of a social reality.

Within this view of the nature of man, education can be seen as a process of actualizing human potential.

> A concept that defies precise definition, education is probably most succintly described as the process of actualizing human potentials. As previously stated, it poses the question: "What can man become?" (Zais. 1976:317)
>
> The aim of education ... is to guide man in the evolving dynamism through which he shapes himself as a human person. Thus the prime goal of education is the conquest of internal or spiritual freedom to be achieved by the individual person, or, in other words, his liberation through knowledge and wisdom, good will and love (Maritain, 1965:37).

Fundamental to my statement of beliefs is a personal commitment to the idea that education is a means of liberation. In the words of Jonathan Livingston Seagull, man can be freed from the shackles of ignorance. All creatures can "lift themselves out of ignorance, we can find ourselves as creatures of excellence and intelligence and skill. We can be free! We can learn to fly! (Bach, 1973:30-31). The following is a summary of the major beliefs about education and teaching which I hold:

- Man is not limited by nature. Humans are active, creative beings receptive to the world around them--co-participants and co-creators of the world they live in.
- Man is a social, rational, emotional, physical and spiritual being. As a rational being, man is actively involved in giving meaning to his social world and in reflecting on the objects of his actions. As a spiritual being, man strives to surpass his daily existence, to reach out, to go beyond.
- Man learns in contact with others.
- Man's motivation to learn comes from within.

Over and above the professional and personal qualities required by teachers in the areas of subject matter knowledge, instructional planning and implementation, classroom managemement and classroom communication, I deem the following charateristics to be important in the definition of a "good" teacher:

- The good teacher has a love and respect for children. Children will do almost anything with somebody they like.
- The good teacher is able to provide each child with a

sense of his own uniqueness, to make each child feel special.

- The good teacher has a love and respect for knowledge. He/she has the capacity to excite and to awe the students.
- The good teacher is able to guide the child in his quest for knowledge in the voyage of life. He/she is able to awaken in the students the desire to learn to fly much like Jonathan Livingston Seagull.
- The good teacher is able to go beyond the confines of what is to entertain the different or impossible.
- The good teacher is able to engage in self-reflection and to critically examine past and present experiences which impact on the classroom reality.
- The good teacher is totally committed to teaching.

APPENDIX B

Pre-Phase III Questionnaire

Pre-Phase III Questionnaire

Please respond to the following items with regard to your forthcoming student teaching semester.

1. I am looking forward to

2. I am uncertain about

3. I am confident that I will be able to

4. By the completion of student teaching I will be able to

5. I'm hoping my cooperating teacher will

6. I'm hoping my faculty consultant

7. I hope my students will

APPENDIX C

Suggested Questions for Weekly Journal

Suggested Questions for Weekly Journal

1. Describe some of the circumstances surrounding any conflicts you were involved in this week. What were the causes? How did you react? Was the conflict resolved? If not, could it have been? These conflicts may be "in the head" or interpersonal.

2. Describe some success experiences you've had this week. List some things that "made your day."

3. Review your week of teaching in search of times and situations when you were pretending, playing a role rather than being openly and honestly yourself. Ask yourself why you played these roles.

4. List some professional decisions you were called upon to make this week. Did you feel autonomous in your choice making? Why or why not?

5. Write down some of the things you learned about teaching this week. Are you achieving what you wish?

6. List the persons or situations that were special this

week, because they made you feel good as a teacher.

7. List or describe the ways your week was good or satisfying.

   If you could have known, what would you have done to make your week better?

8. Additional thoughts:

APPENDIX D

Record of Interviews

Observation and Videotaping Dates

PHASE I

(January–April 1982)

Record of Interview Dates	Michael	Denise	John	Judy	Other phase I student teachers
January 13					•
January 25					•
January 27		•			•
February 5			•		•
February 9	•			•	
February 17		•			•
March 22	•			•	
March 24			•		
April 2					•
April 10	•				
April 24				•	

PHASE II

(September–December 1982)

Record of Interview and Observation Dates	Michael	Denise	John	Judy	Other phase II student teachers
Semi-structured Interviews	. Oct. 14 . Nov. 8 . Dec. 14	. Oct. 7 . Nov. 19 . Dec. 10	. Oct. 5 . Nov. 18 . Dec. 13	. Oct. 21 . Nov. 21 . Dec. 18	. Sept. 20 . Oct. 14 . Nov. 25
Classroom Observation	. Dec. 14	. Dec. 10	. Dec. 13	. Dec. 8	

PHASE III

(January-April 1983)

Record of Interview, Observation, Videotaping Dates	Michael	Denise	John	Judy	Other (co-operating) (teachers)
Semi-structured Interviews	. Feb. 8 . Feb. 15	. Feb. 25 . April 22	. Feb. 10 . Feb. 15 . April 27	. Feb. 14 . March 29	. February 18 . February 25 . March 16 . April 5
Stimulated Recall Interviews	. Feb. 22 . March 8 . March 15 . March 24 . April 13 . April 15	. Feb. 14 . March 15 . March 22 . April 5 . April 14 . April 18	. Feb. 17 . March 3 . March 17 . March 24 . April 6 . April 15	. Feb. 15 . Feb. 22 . Feb. 23 . March 2 . March 9	
Informal Group Sessions	. Jan. 27 . Feb. 18 . March 4 . April 7 . April 8	. Jan. 27 . Feb. 18 . March 4 . April 7 . April 8	. Jan. 27 . Feb. 18 . March 4 . April 7 . April 8	. Jan. 27 . Feb. 18 . March 4 . April 7 . April 8	
Classroom Observation	. Feb. 8 . Feb. 15 . Feb. 22 . March 8 . March 24 . April 13 . April 15	. Feb. 14 . Feb. 25 . March 15 . March 22 . April 5 . April 14 . April 18	. Feb. 10 . Feb. 15 . Feb. 17 . March 3 . March 17 . March 24 . April 6 . April 15	. Feb. 15 . Feb. 22 . Feb. 23 . March 2 . March 9 . March 29 . March 30	
Videotaping	. Feb. 22 . March 8 . March 15 . March 24 . April 13 . April 15	. Feb. 14 . March 15 . March 22 . April 5 . April 14 . April 18	. Feb. 17 . March 3 . March 17 . March 24 . April 6 . April 15	. Feb. 15 . Feb. 22 . Feb. 23 . March 2 . March 9	